Elijah Rejah 1820

THE

YOUNG ENGLISHMAN's MANUAL:

CONTAINING,

PART I.

A GEOGRAPHICAL AND TOPOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF ENGLAND.

PART II.

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE CONSTITUTION, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, REVENUE, ECCLESIASTICAL, CIVIL, AND MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS OF ENGLAND.

DESIGNED AS AN INTRODUCTION TO THE KNOWLEDGE OF THOSE IMPORTANT SUBJECTS.

By B. PRICE.

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PREFACE.

The success which attended the first edition of this work, has induced the proprietors to publish it on an enlarged plan, and to add the Geography and Topography of England; an information in these points being essentially necessary to youth, and affording great assistance in their future progress in life. It must be evident to every one that the description here given will necessarily be short; but as far as it goes it communicates knowledge, and will probably stimulate the young reader to consult other books, which will give him further information.

The Author took up the design of publishing the former edition on observing the great deficiency of information, in certain ranks of his countrymen, with respect to the three points on which he treats—the con-

stitution, law, and government of our country.

It has been a received opinion, that, next to the duty we owe to God and man, our youth should be early initiated into a knowledge of the constitution and laws of their country; a due attention to which forms so material a part of the latter duty. This opinion is warranted by the example of ancient Rome, where, as Cicero informs us, the boys were obliged to learn the twelve tables by heart, as a *carmen necessarium*; an indispensable lesson to imprint on their minds an early knowledge of the law and constitution of their country. But recourse need not be had to such remote times, as this opinion is also supported by many of the more enlightened moderns.

Under this impression, the work has been accommodated to the capacities of such youth as are about to leave or have not long left school; fully sensible, that if this little treatise should have the good fortune to be admitted into those seminaries of learning, it will stimulate the young readers to seek

for further information by consulting authors, whose professed design has carried them into these subjects more at large. For this purpose a reference to such authors as are proper to be consulted is given in the work.

The first intention of the Author was to have given a short historical sketch of each of the subjects on which this work treats; but this the limits of the plan would not admit, except in a very confined degree. By this means he would have been able to shew the happy progress of improved laws, and the desirable order of things now, compared with former times; how, through successive ages, the exertions of our ancestors have been enabled to obtain that freedom to the subject, that protection of property, and those just laws, which, under the rigour of feudal oppression, were withheld from our forefathers; how the benignant spirit of Christianity, when freed from religious bigotry, has produced that general spirit of toleration which now extends itself to all denominations of religion in the country.

Slight as the sketches are, which, con-

sistent with his circumscribed plan, he has given, the Author flatters himself they will point out many of the valuable blessings we now enjoy, and teach the rising youth of this nation to prize them as they ought.

It is not the intention of the writer to stop here; he proposes to give the world a more enlarged view of these subjects, calculated for those of more advanced age, and in which he has already made considerable progress.

☞ In the geographical part of this work some few errors may unavoidably have crept in, as the books the Author has been obliged to consult on the subject are extremely discordant; for these, therefore, he hopes to gain the kind indulgence of the public, and will feel greatly obliged for any communications (addressed to the Publishers) which may in the least degree tend to improve future editions of the work.

September 1802.

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ERRATA.

Page 34, line 17, *for* Dutton, *read*, Sherburn.
54, — 8, *after* is, *add*, a.
60, — 14, *for* West Severn, *read*, West Avon.
69, — 9, *for* Croft Castle, *read*, Corff Castle.
91, — 18, *for* county. *read*, city.
140, — 24, *for* none, *read*, no one.
145, — 33, *for* the pier, *read*, a pier.
193, — 20, *for* sending, *read*, sends.

THE

YOUNG ENGLISHMAN'S

MANUAL.

PART I.—A GEOGRAPHICAL VIEW OF ENGLAND.

CHAP. I.—*General View of England.*

Situation.—ENGLAND, in which is included the principality of Wales, is the southern and largest portion of the kingdom and island of Great Britain, and is situated between the fiftieth and fifty-sixth degrees of north latitude. It is surrounded on all sides by the sea except to the north, where, in some places, the boundaries have never been ascertained; the natural divisions are, however, the rivers Sark, Liddell, Tweed, and the Cheviot hills.

England to the east is bounded by the German ocean; southward, by the English channel; and westward, by the Irish sea and St. George's channel.

The shape of England is nearly triangular; the extreme length in a straight line from Berwick to the Lizard is about 430 miles, and from the Land's End to the South Foreland upwards of 340. The sea washing it nearly on all sides renders it subject to great changes of weather, but at the same time prevents those extremes of heat and cold to which

countries on the continent in the same parallel of latitude are liable. England lying in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth geographical climates, the longest day in the southern parts, or Cornwall, is about sixteen hours, and in the northern, at Berwick upon Tweed, is about seventeen hours.

Name.—This country has been called Albion and Britannia by the ancients, the latter of which name is still retained for the whole island; and in contradistinction to Scotland, called North Britain, England is frequently called South Britain. The true etymology of these names it is difficult to discover; but the derivation of the name England is much better ascertained, being evidently derived from the *Angles*, a tribe of the Saxons who settled here in the fifth century, from whence this country was called *Angle-land*, corrupted into England, the former of which appellations, *Angleterre*, the French retain to this day.

The remarkable lakes, mountains, the climate and soil, natural productions, bays, creeks, harbours, islands on the coast, &c. will be best described in treating of each county.

Rivers.—The rivers of England, however, deserve a more particular notice; their situation will not permit such a length of course as the great rivers of the two continents, but few countries can boast more useful and navigable streams than England. Ridges of high land running through the centre of the kingdom from the north to the south, and other ridges in the southern parts from the east to the west, cause the waters that are collected in these high lands to run to the east, the west, and the south, and to water each side of the island copiously. Accordingly we find, on the eastern shore, the Tyne, the Tees, Humber, Stour, and Thames; on the western, the Ribble, Mersey,

Dee,

Dee, and Severn; besides a multitude of others which flow into the above, or run a short course of themselves into the sea. The rivers on the south shore, or the English channel, are not of great magnitude, but at their mouths several of them form fine harbours. These rivers, many of which are navigable a long way up, have lately been connected by navigable canals, which establish advantageous lines of communication, and which, if they should increase as they have lately done, will render almost every part of England accessible by water carriage.

Face of the Country.—England affords a most beautiful variety of hill and dale, water and land intermixed, and these ornamented in most places with every degree of cultivation which labour and ingenuity can give. Some few spots are and appear barren; but few countries on the globe have so little of that kind of land, especially the portion of Britain of which we are now speaking.

Natural Productions.—The natural productions of England are numerous.

In the vegetable kingdom, whether we consider the forests, fields, or gardens, this country exhibits a most astonishing variety; the nomenclature of these alone would fill a volume, and to have a clear and distinct knowledge of them, the student must consult some approved book of botany.

In the animal kingdom, England reckons a most beautiful breed of horses. Her horned cattle, sheep, and swine, are equal to any in the world. Her forests produce great variety of the deer kind; and her fields plenty of hares and wild rabbits. Birds of various kinds people the woods, and the farm-yards are well stocked with tame fowl.

In the mineral kingdom she can boast of wonderful riches; for her tin mines she has been famous ever since the time of the ancient Greeks;

 copper,

copper, iron, lead, many of the minor metals, coal in immense quantities, salt mines, and various other mineral productions, are found in the bowels of the earth.

Divisions of England.—England having been successively inhabited and governed by the Britons (its ancient inhabitants), by the Romans, Saxons, Danes, and Normans, has experienced many changes in her political divisions; but those which now prevail were in general settled by our Saxon ancestors, and are three, legal, ecclesiastical, and civil.

The legal and ecclesiastical divisions being applied to the execution of the laws, will be reserved until these laws are treated of.

The civil division into shires has also much connexion with the execution of the laws; but being frequently directed by natural divisions, occasioned by rivers, lakes, mountains, &c. is much more applicable to a geographical description.

The first division of the kingdom of England is into England and Wales. In the former there are forty subdivisions, called shires or counties; in the latter, twelve. The forty English counties may be again classed into maritime and midland counties.

Beginning at the Land's End, the maritime counties on the south side are, Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, Hants, Sussex, and Kent, on the English channel; on the east side, Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincoln, York, Durham, and Northumberland; then crossing the country to the west, we find Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancaster, Chester *(Wales)*, Monmouth, and Somerset.

The inland counties are those of Wilts, Berks, Middlesex, Surry, Herts, Bedford, Buckingham, Oxford, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Northampton, Warwick, Worcester, Gloucester, Rutland, Leicester,

cester, Nottingham, Derby, Stafford, Salop, and Hereford.

The Welsh counties, beginning to the north, are Flint, Denbigh, Carnarvon, Anglesea, Merioneth, and Montgomery: called North Wales.—Cardigan, Pembroke, Carmarthen, Glamorgan, Brecknock, and Radnor: these are called South Wales.

In proceeding to a description of each county, we shall place them alphabetically, for the convenience of reference; and it may be necessary to observe, that as county and shire are in most respects synonymous terms, many of these divisions have two names: thus, in speaking of Shropshire, if we refer to it as a county, we call it the county of Salop—Hampshire is likewise called the county of Hants; and so of others, which will be noticed.

CHAP. II.—*Bedfordshire.*

Name and Boundaries.—This county takes its name from the chief town; the Saxon name was Bedanford, meaning, as our etymologists inform us, the inn in the ford. We now observe, that in etymology we shall seldom stray, being fully assured, that while it elucidates one fact it obscures a thousand. It is bounded north, by Northampton and Huntingdon shires; east, by Cambridgeshire and Hertfordshire; west, by Buckinghamshire; and south, by parts of the two last-named counties; being about twenty-two miles long and fifteen broad, and contains above 307,000 acres of land.

Rivers.—The only river of any consequence in this county is the Ouse, which crosses and divides the shire nearly in two parts. It is navigable through the shire, waters the town of Bedford, and receives all the smaller streams.

Air, Soil, and Productions.—The air of Bedfordshire is pure and healthy, and the soil a deep clay; north of the Ouse it is woody, but the land fruitful; south of that river it is less fertile. The county produces wheat and barley in abundance, and excellent in their kind.

Bedfordshire is not celebrated for its manufactures; some bone-lace and hats, and other ware made of straw, are its chief productions.

Divisions.—This county has one borough and nine market towns, is divided into nine districts called hundreds, has 124 parishes, all of them being in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Lincoln.

Towns.—Bedford, the county town, and the only borough of the county, is the place where the assizes are held, and sends two members to parliament. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, two bailiffs, and twelve aldermen. Bedford was destroyed by the Danes, and repaired by Edward the Elder. It is fifty miles north by weſt of London.

The other market towns are Ampthill, Biggleswade, Dunstable, Leighton, Luton, Potton, Shefford, Tuddington, and Woburn.

Ampthill is a neat town; near to it is Ampthill Park, the seat of the Earl of Ossory, once belonging to the crown, and the residence of the unhappy Catherine of Arragon, during the debate on her divorce.

Dunstable is famous for its manufactory of straw hats, and is a considerable thoroughfare.

Woburn, for the noble seat of the Duke of Bedford, called Woburn Abbey.

There are in Bedfordshire many Roman, Saxon, and Norman antiquities. In the Roman times this county was inhabited by the people called by them Cattieuchlani. About a mile from Dunstable there

is

is a round fortification, supposed to have been a town of the ancient Britons. The place is now called Maiden Bower, and which Camden supposes to have been Magionium.

In this county are several very fine seats and parks belonging to the nobility and gentry; Ampthill and Woburn have been already mentioned: there are besides, Luton, a very fine seat of the Marquis of Bute; and Haynes, the seat of Lord Carteret.

CHAP. III.—*Berkshire.*

This county is bounded by Hampshire, on the south; Wiltshire, on the west; by the river Thames, on the north; and by Buckinghamshire and Surry, on the east: being about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad; the number of acres it contains near 435,000.

The principal river of this county is the Thames, which some authors have called the Isis, before it joins the little river Thame. This river forms the whole boundary of the county to the northward. In its course it is joined by the Kennet, the Lodden, and the Ocke, the former of which is navigable.

The air of this county is healthy; and although the soil is not the most fertile, except near the rivers, yet the appearance of the country is pleasant. It is well stored with timber, particularly oak and beech.

The principal manufactures are woollen cloth, sail-cloth, and malt.

The county is divided into twenty hundreds; is situated in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Salisbury, and contains 140 parishes. It has four boroughs, viz. Abingdon, Reading, Wallingford, and Windsor; the former of which sends one

one representative to parliament, and the others two each; and has besides eight other market-towns, East Ilsley, Farringdon, Hungerford, Lower Lambourne, Maidenhead, Newbury, Wokingham, and Wantage. The summer assizes are held at Abingdon; the Lent at Reading.

Abingdon, called so from an abbey anciently built there, stands on a branch of the Thames fifty-eight miles distant from London; it was incorporated by Queen Mary the First, and is governed by a mayor, two bailiffs, and nine aldermen. It has two churches, two hospitals, a free-school, and a charity-school. Its chief manufacture is malt. The streets are well paved, and centre in an area where the market is held.

Reading is supposed to derive its name from redin, the British word for fern, which grew here in great plenty. It is forty-one miles distant from London, is the county town, and governed by a mayor and twelve aldermen, has three parish churches, and is contiguous to the Thames, which the Kennet that runs through the town here joins. Reading has, by means of the river, a considerable trade, particularly to London, to which it sends malt, meal, and timber, and receives in return, coals, salt, and grocery.

Wallingford was incorporated by James I. The town is large, standing likewise on the Thames, over which it has a stone bridge. It has two churches and a free-school. Its chief manufacture malt.

Windsor is supposed to have derived its name from the *winding* shore of the Thames; it is called Windleshore in a charter of Edward the Confessor's. The town was incorporated by Edward the First, and has charters from James the First and Second. It is situated on a rising ground, surrounded by a fruitful

fruitful country, and watered by the Thames. There is a handsome town hall, and a large church; but what makes Windsor so much celebrated is the castle, a magnificent pile, which is about a mile in circumference, has a royal palace, and a terrace, which affords one of the finest views in the world. Here also is the hall called St. George's Hall, where the feasts of the installation of the knights of the most ancient order of the Garter are held, and also the chapel of the order, where they are installed. Near to Windsor are two royal parks, the one called the Great, the other the Little park. Windsor forest has been celebrated by Pope for its rural beauties.

The other market-towns have not any thing very remarkable.

The county was formerly possessed by the Attrebatii, and under the Saxons formed part of the kingdom of the West Saxons.

Among the curiosities of this county is the rude figure of a white horse, that takes up near an acre of ground on the side of a green hill, which has been there from time immemorial, and which the neighbouring peasants assemble yearly around, and keep it in shape. The adjoining vale is called the Vale of the White Horse.

The number of noblemen's and gentlemen's seats in this county is great; the principal are Aldermaston, Bagshot, Benham, Buscot, Cranbury, Easthamstead, Fawley, Park Place, and Sunning Hill.

CHAP. IV.—*Buckinghamshire.*

This county is supposed to have taken its name from bocar, a Saxon word, signifying beech trees, or from buck the animal, with both which it formerly abounded. It is separated by the Thames, from Berkshire, on the south; bounded by Oxfordshire

on the west; by Northamptonshire on the north; and by the counties of Bedford, Hertford, and Middlesex, on the east. It is about thirty-nine miles long and eighteen broad, and contains 518,400 statute acres.

The rivers which water this county, except the Thames, are small; the Coln passes Uxbridge and joins the Thames at Staines; the Ouse passes by Stony Stratford and Newport Pagnell into Bedfordshire. There are several small streams on which paper and corn mills are erected.

The south-east part of the county consists of a ridge of hills called the Chiltern, which afford fine prospects; these are composed of chalk, and in many places covered with wood: the northern parts are called the *Vale*. On the hills the air is healthful, but the soil stony; it, however, produces good crops of wheat and barley: in many places it is covered with thick woods. The air of the Vale is much more salubrious than in most other counties, and the land is extremely fertile; the soil, marl and chalk: some part is in tillage, but much more is used for grazing.

The two chief manufactures of Buckinghamshire are bone-lace and paper.

The county is divided into eight hundreds, lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of London, and contains 185 parishes.

It has six boroughs and nine other market-towns. The boroughs are Amersham, Aylesbury, Buckingham, Marlow, Wendover, and Wycomb.

Amersham, or Agmondesham, is an ancient borough not incorporated, but by prescription sends two members to parliament. It has a church, free-school, and market-house, which is also the town-hall.

Aylesbury, the best town in the county, is distant

tant about forty-four miles from London, and is a corporation, which sends two representatives to parliament. The assizes for the county are sometimes held here. In the centre of the town is the market-place, a large, handsome square, where the town-hall stands, and under it is the prison. The church of Aylesbury is said to be the oldest in this county.

Buckingham is about sixty miles from London, and is a corporation, sending two members to parliament; the summer assizes are held here. The town is low, and is surrounded on all sides except the north by the Ouse. Here are the town-hall, a large church, a county jail, and free-school. In the neighbourhood are many paper-mills on the banks of the Ouse. The town is, however, much decayed.

Great Marlow is a borough by prescription, and sends two members; it is situated near the Chiltern hills, and has a bridge over the Thames, a handsome church, town-hall, and charity-school. Much bone-lace is made here, and there are many mills in the neighbourhood for grinding corn, making paper, and pressing oil from seeds.

Wendover is also an ancient borough by prescription, and sends two members to parliament; it is a poor place, and has only a small charity-school.

Wycomb, called sometimes Chipping and High Wycomb, stands on a small stream called the Wyck, which runs into the Thames; it is a populous and well-built town, and a corporation. It is esteemed the best built and most wealthy town in the county, has a considerable market, a large church, a grammar-school, and two alms-houses.

The other market-towns are Beaconsfield, Chesham, Colnbrook, Ivingo, Newport Pagnell, Olney,

ney, Risborough, called also Monks Risborough, Stony Stratford, and Winslow.

Colnbrook stands on the great road from London to Bath, has bridges over the channels of the Coln, and some considerable inns.

Newport Pagnell is a large, well-built town, and is a kind of staple for bone-lace, more of which is made in the town and the neighbourhood than in any other part of the kingdom: this causes it to be flourishing.

Stony Stratford is a large town; most of the houses are built of a free-stone dug from a quarry near the town. Here are a bridge over the Ouse, and two parish churches.

On the banks of the Thames, and joined to Windsor by a bridge over that river, stands Eton, where there is a royal foundation for the maintenance of a provost and seven fellows, with schoolmasters and other officers, for the instruction of seventy poor scholars who are nominated by the King, and are therefore called the king's scholars, and are here qualified for the university. Besides these seventy scholars on the foundation, Eton has generally some hundreds of the sons of the nobility and gentry who are here educated, and, like the others, qualified for the university. These are educated and boarded at the expense of their parents and friends. The school has a good library. The building for these general purposes is large, has cloisters like religious houses, and a fine chapel in the Gothic style.

Buckinghamshire was anciently inhabited by the Cattieuchlani, and under the Saxon princes formed part of the kingdom of the East Angles.

There were probably many Roman stations in this county; as at Wycomb, a Roman pavement

has been discovered, and at Bury Hill or Brill, and Stony Stratford, Roman coins have been found.

Not far from Monks Risborough is a high and steep chalky hill, on the west side of which is the figure of a cross, cut in chalk like the white horse in Berkshire. It is supposed to be a trophy of the Saxons; the perpendicular line is 100 feet, and the transverse seventy.

The number of seats belonging to the nobility and gentry in this county is very great: Askridge, belonging to the Duke of Bridgewater; Bulstrode, to the Duke of Portland; Wycomb, to the Marquis of Lansdowne; Shardeloes, to the family of Drake; and Stowe, to the Marquis of Buckingham; are the principal.

CHAP. V.—*Cambridgeshire*,

So called from its chief town, which has its name from a bridge over the river Cam.

It is bounded on the west, by Huntingdon and Bedford shires; on the south, by Hertfordshire and Essex; on the north, by Lincolnshire; and on the east, by Norfolk and Suffolk. It extends about fifty miles from north to south, about twenty-five from east to west, and contains about 670,000 acres.

Cambridgeshire is watered by the Ouse, which running from east to west divides it in two parts. The little river Cam runs through the county from south to north, and joins the Ouse near Ely; and many other smaller streams flow through it into the Ouse.

A considerable tract of land in the northern part of this county is distinguished by the name of the Isle of Ely, and consists of fenny ground, divided into innumerable channels and drains, with a few elevated spots scattered like islands in the midst of

low

low marshes. This was originally a bog, but by wonderful labour, and at an immense expense, has been drained, and has become rich meadow and arable land. The principal drains are called the Bedford old and new rivers. Francis Russell Earl of Bedford, in the reign of Charles the First, agreed to drain this spot on condition of receiving 90,000 acres of land for his own use: he and his friends expended 100,000*l.* when the work was stopped for a time, but afterwards resumed, and completed at the expense of 400,000*l.* the adventurers being made a corporation. This tract of land, not less than 300,000 acres, is damp and unwholesome, but in the southern part of the county the air is pure and salubrious, and the soil excellent. This immense tract is supposed to have been overflown in some violent convulsion of nature.

The principal commodities of this county are corn, malt, cattle, butter, saffron, seed, and some hemp; many wild fowl are also taken in decoys, and from the Isle of Ely some thousand couples are sent to London weekly. The principal manufactures of the county are paper and wicker ware.

Cambridgeshire is divided into seventeen hundreds, and contains one city, one borough, and seven market-towns. It lies in the province of Canterbury and the diocese of Ely, except a small part, which is in that of Norwich: the whole county contains 163 parishes.

The city of Ely is sixty-seven miles from London, and is governed by a bishop, who has not only the ecclesiastical but civil jurisdiction, and appoints the magistrates. It is remarkable, that, although a city, it sends no representative to parliament. The sovereignty of Ely was granted to the bishop by Henry the First, who also made Cambridgeshire his diocese, which was before a part of Lincoln. It

stands

stands on a rising ground, and, although surrounded by fens, is not reckoned unhealthy. The principal street on the east side of the town is full of springs and wells. The chief buildings are the cathedral and bishop's palace. The cathedral is 400 feet long, and has a tower 200 feet high. Here are a free-school and two charity-schools.

Cambridge, the county town, is situated on the river Cam, over which is a stone bridge. It is distant fifty-two miles from London, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, &c. The situation of this town is low, and the adjacent soil moist. The town is ill built, but has fourteen parish churches. In the market-place is a public conduit. A new building called a shire-house has been erected contiguous to the old town-hall. Here are two charity-schools, in which 300 children are taught, and fifty clothed.

But what renders Cambridge celebrated, is its noble University, where the youth of England receive their last education, being usually sent hither from the two great schools at Westminster and Eton. It consists of seventeen colleges, four of which are denominated halls, but have equal privileges with the colleges. The University is a corporation, and governed by a chancellor, vice-chancellor, high steward, two proctors, and two taxers, all of whom are chosen by the University. The chancellor is always a peer of the realm, and continues in office for life, although the University may elect another at the end of three years. The vice-chancellor is chosen annually: the heads of colleges nominate two persons, of which the University elects one. The high steward is chosen by the senate, and holds his place by patent. The proctors and taxers are chosen yearly from the several colleges by turns. Here are public schools,

a library, a chapel for each college, and a university library, in which are the collections of several archbishops and bishops. We lament that our limits will not permit us to add any thing more than the names of the colleges, which have each a chief generally called master, a certain number of fellows who have the direction of the college, and also a number of scholars.

The colleges are according to their seniority: Peter House, Clare Hall, Pembroke Hall, Corpus Christi or Benedict College, Trinity Hall, Gonville and Caius College, King's College, Queen's College, Catharine Hall, Jesus College, Christ College, St. John's College, Magdalen College, Trinity College, Emanuel College, Sidney Sussex College, and Downing College. These establishments have in them 406 fellowships, 666 scholarships, and 236 inferior officers and servants, who are maintained on the foundations. There are two degrees or ranks of students called pensioners, the greater and the less. The greater pensioners are in general the young nobility and gentry, who are called also fellow-commoners, because they have their commons with the fellows; the less are dieted with the scholars. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait on the fellows and scholars, by whom they are in a great degree maintained.

The University has the privilege of sending two members to parliament. It has also by special grants the privilege of printing books of every kind at its own press. Cambridge is a borough town, and sends two members to parliament.

The other market-towns are Caxton, Linton, Mersh or March, Newmarket, Royston, Soham, and Wisbeach.

Newmarket has a large heath which surrounds the

the town, and is celebrated as the finest horse-course in England. It has two churches, one of which stands in this county, the other in Suffolk, two charity-schools, and a royal palace.

Royston, some part of which lies in Hertfordshire, has a charity-school, and a very considerable trade in barley and malt.

Wisbeach is situated adjoining to the fens and rivers of the Isle of Ely; is well built and populous, has a public hall and episcopal palace of the Bishop of Ely. It has a navigation, which admits vessels of sixty tons, that has given it a considerable trade in oats, oil, and butter, which it sends to the metropolis.

Near Cambridge is a village called Stourbridge, remarkable for a fair, at one time reckoned the greatest temporary mart in the world, and is still very considerable. It is held in a corn-field about half a mile square, which is then covered with booths built regularly in streets, and which are called after the great trading streets in London, as Cheapside, Cornhill, &c. Among these booths are not only warehouses and shops for almost every kind of commodity, but coffee-houses, taverns, eating-houses, and places for shews. There is a place of 100 yards square for clothiers, where 100,000*l.* in their commodity are sold in the week; wool, upholstery, ironmonger's ware, and hops, are also sold to a vast amount. The concourse of people who resort thither for business or curiosity is immense.

The natural curiosities of this county are few. The crows of Royston have some white feathers about them, in which they differ from the other crows of the kingdom.

Cambridge was anciently inhabited by the Iceni.

Under

Under the Romans it is thought to have been a part of Flavia Cæsariensis; under the Saxons it formed a part of the kingdom of the East Angles. In this county are found several wide, deep, and long ditches, which were cut by the East Angles apparently to defend their little kingdom against the inroads of the more powerful Mercians.

The principal seats in this county are Cheveley, Gogmagog, and Madingley.

Chap. VI.—*Cheshire.*

The present name is a contraction of Chester-shire, derived from Chester the chief town.

It is bounded on the north, by Lancashire and part of Yorkshire; east, by Derby and Stafford shires; south, by Shropshire and Flintshire; west, by Flint and Denbigh shires and the Irish sea, into which the north-west corner shoots, and forms a peninsula thirteen miles long and seven broad; on one side of which the river Mersey, and on the other the river Dee, run into the sea. Cheshire is about forty-five miles long and thirty-five broad, and contains about 670,000 acres of land.

It is watered by the rivers Mersey, Weaver, and Dee. The Weaver rises in Shropshire, passes near Middlewich and Northwich, and runs into the Mersey near Frodsham. The Mersey divides this county from Lancashire, and waters Stockport, Warrington, and Liverpool. The Dee rises in Wales, waters Merioneth, Flint, and Denbigh, and separates Cheshire from North Wales.

The air of this county is serene and healthful: the country in general flat, except on the borders of Stafford and Derby shires, where it rises into hills. It has an extensive forest or heath, called Delamere. The soil of Cheshire is fruitful, which is increased by a kind of marl or fat clay, both

red

red and white, which the inhabitants spread over the lands as manure. Corn is thus produced in great plenty, and the pasture is sweet and fine. Many tracts of land are covered with heath and moss, which the inhabitants use only as fuel. The natives call these tracts mosses, and distinguish them into white, gray, or black: they evidently consist of an assemblage of leaves, seeds, flowers, stalks, roots, &c. From these mosses square pieces are dug and laid in the sun to dry for fuel.

The chief productions of this county are cheese, salt, and mill-stones. The cheese is esteemed some of the best in England, and is made in great plenty. Salt is produced from salt mines and springs, in some places, as at Namptwich and Middlewich. At Northwich is a salt-pit, from whence rock-salt is dug in prodigious quantities, and sent by the canal to Liverpool for exportation. Some of the salt-springs are much stronger than the sea-water, the latter producing only an ounce and a half of salt from a quart, and the former often seven or eight ounces. The stone which is wrought into mill-stones is taken from a quarry near Congleton. Coals are also dug in Cheshire.

The county is divided into seven hundreds, and contains one city and twelve market-towns. It lies in the province of York and diocese of Chester, and contains 124 parishes. It has only one place which sends members to parliament, which is the city of Chester.

The city of Chester is supposed to derive its name from the Latin word castra, a camp, the Roman legions being often encamped near this place; it is distant 182 miles from London, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, &c. It has ten churches, one of which is the cathedral,

which;

which, with the bishop's palace and the houses of the prebendaries, are in the north part of the city; the whole surrounded by a wall, and near two miles in compass. The four chief streets meet each other, and in the centre stands the town-house or pentice. The structure of these streets is without parallel; they seem excavated out of the earth, and sunk many feet beneath the surface. The carriages run on a level with some of the shops, and the passengers walk over them in piazzas, and may pass from one end of the city to the other under cover. These piazzas are called rows. The city has four gates, which stand east, west, north, and south, and has a strong castle. A beautiful shire-hall has been lately erected, where the courts are held, and the records kept. Here is a new county jail, and a bridge of many arches over the Dee. At the bridge are water-works to supply the inhabitants with water. A new canal has lately been dug from the city to the Mersey, which promises to be of great advantage. Here are manufactories of gloves, patent shot, and tobacco-pipes.

On the peninsula above mentioned, and a little below Chester, stands Parkgate, which is one of the stations for packets between England and Ireland.

The market-towns are Altrincham, Congleton, Frodsham, Halton, Knutsford, Macclesfield, Malpas, Middlewich, Namptwich, Northwich, Sandbach, and Stockport.

Congleton is celebrated for its silk-mill, which is a very curious piece of machinery. It has also a considerable glove manufactory.

Frodsham stands near the confluence of the Weaver and Mersey, has a bridge over the latter, and about a mile from the town is another over the Weaver.

Maccles-

Macclesfield is situated near the river Bollyn, has two churches, one a very fair edifice, a free-school, and a college founded by Savage, first Bishop of London. Its chief manufactures are buttons, twist, and hats.

Namptwich is situated in what is called the Vale Royal, close to the Weaver, is the best town in the county, the streets being regular, and adorned with many gentlemen's houses; the church large and handsome, built in the form of a cathedral. It has two charity-schools, a considerable trade for cheese and salt, and a weekly fair for corn and cattle.

Northwich is an ancient town, near which some mines of rock-salt are found. Some of these mines have a most splendid appearance, being supported by regular rows of pillars, and with the aid of candles the roof and sides sparkle like crystals. They have much the appearance of a subterraneous cathedral.

Besides the salt-springs there are several mineral springs in this county, one at Stockport stronger than that of Tunbridge. In the mosses marine shells and many exotic substances are found, and some on the summit of high mountains.

Near Frodsham is a free-stone rock, in which the belemnites or thunder-stone is found.

Cheshire was inhabited by the Cornavii, and under the Saxons formed part of the kingdom of Mercia. It was conquered by the Danes and recovered by Alfred, who made it a province of the kingdom of the West Saxons. William the Norman created it a county palatine with sovereign jurisdiction, which it continued until Henry the Eighth made it dependant on the crown.

The walls of the city of Chester are supposed to have been built by Lupus, nephew of the Conqueror;

queror; it had a castle in the Saxon times. It must have been considerable in the early ages, as many Roman foundations, coins, and pavements have been found near it.

An episcopal see was fixed in Chester in the seventh century, and has at some periods been connected with the bishopric of Lichfield. The city of Chester sends two members to parliament.

The Duke of Bridgwater's canal from Worsley to the Mersey, runs into that river at Runcorn in this county, and is of considerable benefit to it; as is the navigation of the Weaver, rendered so by means of locks, and at a considerable expense. The ruins of Beeston Castle are remarkably conspicuous all over the county.

The principal seats are those of Lords Cholmondeley, Grosvenor, and Dutton, and Mr. Crewe.

CHAP. VII.—*Cornwall*

Was one of the places of refuge for the Britons from the Roman and Saxon conquerors, and it is doubtful if the former ever subdued it. Its name is said to have been derived from the British word corn or horn, from its shape like a cornucopia, and Wall, or Gaul.

Cornwall is bounded on the north, south, and west by the sea, and is parted on the east from Devonshire by the river Tamar. The length is about ninety miles, the breadth in the broadest part adjoining to Devonshire near fifty. This county forms a peninsula, and contains about 758,000 acres of land.

The rivers are the Tamar, Cober, Fall, and Camel. The Tamar at its mouth forms Hamoaze, one of the finest harbours of England, and one of the stations of the royal navy; the Fall at its exit forms the fine harbour of Falmouth; the Cober

runs into the sea at Helstone; the Looe at Looe; and the Camel at Padstow.

The climate of Cornwall is milder than any other part of Britain, being surrounded by the sea; but then it is also from that circumstance more subject to rain. The soil of Cornwall in the low grounds is rendered fertile by means of manure; but the hills and moors, which occupy a very considerable part, are bare and unfruitful. The saltness of the atmosphere, and the little protection from the winds, make the growth of trees very uncertain, and occasion the country to have a barren appearance. The spring in this county is more backward, and both summer and winter more temperate, than in most other counties; the snow lies but a short time on the ground.

Cornwall is celebrated for its minerals, with which the earth, and the shoals of fish with which the seas abound. From early antiquity this county has been noted for its tin, which forms a great object, both of internal and external commerce, and is deemed of such high importance, that special courts for regulating the miners, called stannary courts, are established in this and the adjoining counties. From the tin-mines the Prince of Wales, as Duke of Cornwall, draws a considerable revenue. Some valuable copper-mines are worked in this county, but for want of fuel much of it is sent to Wales to be smelted. Some lead, and other metallic substances, are found. There are also quarries of slate and marble, some soap-rock and clay for the potters, and fine rock crystals. On the Cornish coasts astonishing quantities of fish are caught, more particularly pilchards, which come into the bays of this county in immense shoals, and are caught at St. Ives, Mounts Bay, St. Mawes, &c. Of these, immense quantities are salted

salted and exported. These articles, with oxen and swine, form the riches of the county, for there are few manufacturing towns. The county also produces wheat, barley, and rye.

Cornwall is a dutchy, and gives title to the eldest son of the King, who is born Duke of Cornwall, and as such has certain revenues, and the right of appointing officers, especially the sheriff of the county; and all writs are made out in his name, and not in the king's. The islands of Scilly are esteemed part of this dutchy.

Cornwall lies in the diocese of Exeter, and has about 200 parishes. It is divided into nine hundreds, and has thirty-one market-towns.

This county sends no less than forty-four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs. These are Launceston, the capital or county town, situated on the Tamar, nearly equi-distant from both seas: it is of great antiquity, but of little consequence at present. The other boroughs are Liskeard, Lestwithiel, Truro, Bodmin, Saltash, Camelford, West Looe, Grampound, East Looe, Penryn, Tregony, Bossiney, St. Ives, Fowey, St. Germains, St. Michael, Newport, St. Mawes, and Kellington. Some of these corporations have no market.

The market-towns of Cornwall which are not boroughs, are Bosscastle, Columb Magna, Falmouth, Marazion or Market Jew, Mousehole, Padstow, Penzance, Stratton, and Woodbridge.

Bodmin has the sheriff's prison for debtors, and the largest church in the county; its principal manufactures are serge and yarn. It is a large town, consisting of one street near a mile long. Being in the centre of the county, the summer assizes are held there. It is 237 miles from London.

Bossiney, called also Tintagel, stands on two rocks,

rocks, one of which is on the main land, the other in the sea. Both this and Camelford, also a borough, are very inconsiderable places. The latter has a market for yarn.

The two Looes are joined by a bridge over the river Looe; and, although small towns, send each two members to parliament. They were both incorporated by Queen Elizabeth. West Looe has a commodious but small harbour.

Fowey has a convenient haven, is populous and extensive: it flourished greatly in former times, and we are told the ships of this town sailing past the Cinque Ports, and refusing to strike, were attacked; they beat the assailants, and quartered the arms of the Cinque Ports with their own.

St. Germains is a mean village, but was once a bishop's see. The parish of St. Germains is twenty miles in compass, contains seventeen villages, and it is said more gentlemen's seats than any other parish in England.

Grampound is a small town, but has a manufactory for gloves.

Helstone is large and populous, situated on the river Cober, not far from the sea: much tin is laden here.

St. Ives stands on St. George's channel, is a small town, and has a handsome church. The sea is encroaching on this town, and has more than once forced the people to remove. The land between this and Mounts Bay is not four miles over. From the hills near this town the Scilly Islands may be seen.

Kellington, or Callington, is not a chartered town, but governed by a portreeve; it has a woollen manufactory, which renders it superior to most of the Cornish boroughs.

The town of Launceston includes two ancient boroughs, viz. Dunhevid and Newport, each of which

 sends

sends members to parliament. It is a populous and trading town, is the seat for the summer assizes, and where the knights of the shire are elected, and may therefore be called the county town. Here are a free and two charity schools. It is 216 miles distant from London.

Liskeard is said to be one of the largest and best built towns in Cornwall; has a manufactory for boots and shoes, and the inhabitants spin much yarn.

Lestwithiel is not populous; for the river on which it stands is so choked with sand, as to be no longer navigable. It has however the jail, and keeps the standard weights and measures of the stannary court. It has a church with a spire, and there was some time since said to be only one other in Cornwall. This place having been once a princely residence has some privileges, and had some ancient customs now disused.

St. Mawes has only one street, inhabited chiefly by fishermen; the castles of Pendennis and St. Mawes are intended to defend the entrance of Falmouth haven.

St. Michael's is a mean hamlet; and although it sends two members to parliament, has neither market nor fair.

Penryn is situated on the harbour of Falmouth, and has a good trade in catching, drying, and vending pilchards, and in the Newfoundland fishery.

Saltash is a small town, situated on the Tamar, where there is a ferry. It has an admiralty court.

Tregony has a manufacture of serge.

Truro is at the head of one of the branches of Falmouth harbour, and has a quay for ships of an hundred tons. The streets are regular, and the

church

church is a handsome Gothic building. Its trade consists in shipping off tin and copper ore.

Of the market-towns, Falmouth is the station of the western packets, and superior to any of the borough-towns; but does not send any members to parliament. It is well built, and is likewise the station of the custom-house officers for most of the Cornish ports. Falmouth has a considerable trade in pilchards.

Marazion or Market Jew, Moushole, Stratton, Woodbridge, and St. Austel, which in some books is called a market, are towns of little consideration. The market of Redruth is dissolved. Padstow is situated on the western sea, and has a good trade to Ireland. Penzance is situated in Mounts Bay, has a considerable trade, and is one of the coinage towns for tin.

The natural productions of this county are many, as several kinds of mineral waters, fossil wood, and mines of tin, copper, &c. which form a great part of the riches of the county.

The inhabitants of Cornwall were, until within these two centuries, distinguished by their language, different both from the Welsh and Armorici. They are also celebrated as wrestlers and hurlers, two sports which they practise on holydays, and in which they are reckoned very expert.

The tinners are a community by themselves, and are under the direction of an officer called the lord warden, who appoints under him a vice-warden, and four stewards for the four districts of the stannaries, who have juries of six men to determine the causes brought before them. The tinners have also what is called a parliament to make by-laws. The stannary towns are Launceston, Lestwithiel, Truro, and Helstone.

Few counties have more monuments of anti-

quity than Cornwall; they are far too numerous to be here mentioned. They consist of stone monuments of various sorts, rocking stones, cromlechs, circles of stones, &c.

This county sends no less than forty-four members to parliament, two of which only are for the county; the other forty-two for the small boroughs which we have just noted, and which from their little consequence and low state are emphatically called *rotten* boroughs.

Cornwall has a great number of seats of the nobility and gentry, as Anthony, Boconnoc, Boscawen, Carclew, Clowance, Godolphin, Morval, Port Eliot, Tehidy, Tregothan, Trerice, &c.

Chap. VIII.—*Cumberland.*

Supposed to be so called from *Cumbri*, a name given to the ancient Britons, who long maintained their ground in this county.

This county is bounded by the Irish sea on the west; by Scotland on the north; by Northumberland, Durham, and Westmoreland, on the east; and by Lancashire and the Irish sea on the south; it is about fifty-five miles long and thirty-eight broad. The number of acres is 970,000.

Cumberland abounds with rivers and lakes, which the inhabitants call *meres*, that have of late been much visited. Of rivers, the Derwent is the chief, which rises in Borradale, and forming a large lake called Derwentwater, near Keswick, runs through the county by Cockermouth, and meets the Irish sea near Workington. The Eden rises in Yorkshire, crosses Westmoreland and this county, and, after receiving several small streams, runs past Carlisle into Solway Frith.

The air of this county, though cold, is not so piercing as from its northern situation might be expected,

expected, being sheltered by lofty mountains. The northern parts are fruitful, the plains producing corn in abundance, and the hills yielding good pasture for sheep. The country is most beautifully variegated by hills, vallies, and water; but it wants wood. The river Derwent produces salmon in abundance; the Eden, a small fish of the trout kind called char. Some of the mountains contain metals and minerals; and in the south near Copeland, and at Newland near Keswick, there are rich mines of copper ore. Here have also been found coals, lead, lapis calaminaris; and the mineral called by the inhabitants wadd, or common black lead, is found in this county in Borradale, and no where else.

This county is divided into five wards, a term peculiar to the division of this and one or two other counties. It lies in the province of York and dioceses of Chester and Carlisle, and contains about ninety parishes. It has one city, Carlisle, one borough, and ten market-towns.

Carlisle is 301 miles distant from London. Here the assizes for the county are held, and sometimes the county sessions. It is situated at the confluence of the Eden and two small rivers, is an episcopal see, and is wealthy and populous. This city is the key of England on the west, and is strengthened by a wall; before the union of the two crowns it was a place of great importance. The houses are well built. The east or upper part of the cathedral is esteemed a curious piece of workmanship, being built about the year 1520; the choir was erected in 1356, is 137 feet long, and thirty broad, adorned with curious workmanship. Here are also a castle and two parish-churches, St. Cuthbert and St. Mary. The chief manufactures of the city are fustian and printed linens. Near this place the Picts' wall begins.

Cumberland has one borough-town, Cockermouth, which sends two members to parliament. It is situated between two hills, nearly surrounded by the rivers Derwent and Cocker: over the latter it has two good bridges. The town consists of two streets of houses, well built with stone, has a harbour for vessels of considerable burden, a church, a guildhall, and a corn-market. Here is a market also for cattle, and much coal is exported. It has manufactures of leather, hats, and shalloon.

The other market-towns are Brampton, Egremont, Ireby, Keswick, Kirk-Oswald, Penrith, Ravenglass, Whitehaven, and Wigton.

Egremont, about two miles from Whitehaven, had formerly a castle, and before the time of Edward I. sent members to parliament.

Keswick is situated on the north side of the lake formed by the Derwent, in a fruitful plain almost encompassed by mountains; but is sheltered from the north wind by the lofty mountain of Skiddaw. Near this town are the black lead mines. The vale of Keswick is one of the most delightful spots in Cumberland.

Penrith is a large, wealthy, and populous town, has a church and two charity-schools, and a considerable trade in corn and cattle. The quarter sessions are sometimes held here.

Whitehaven is a populous and rich town: its chief trade consists in furnishing Ireland and part of Scotland with coals, and next to Newcastle in Northumberland is the most considerable port for shipping that commodity in the kingdom. The ships take in their coals in the road, which is good; but there is a small haven and safe anchorage.

Among the natural curiosities of this county may be reckoned the mountains, of which there are four, Crossfell, Helvellen, Saddleback, and Skiddaw,

daw, remarkable for their height, and esteemed the most lofty in England. One of them is scarcely accessible; yet the foundation of a building, supposed either a church or castle, has been discovered on the top.

The inhabitants of Cumberland say, that their ancestors were denominated Cumbri, from whence the present name of the county; they are however by Ptolemy called the Brigantes. In this county runs the western part of the celebrated rampart called the Picts' Wall, built by the Emperor Adrian to defend the southern parts of Britain from that people.

During the heptarchy this county made part of the kingdom of Northumberland, and after the Norman conquest it was included in the northern circuit.

The mountains and lakes of this county cause it to be much visited; the height, the ruggedness, and steepness of the former, their varied forms and assemblage of beauties, are thought to compose scenes which few other parts of this island can equal. The lakes, although there are some in this county, yet as the greater part of them are in Westmoreland, we shall reserve our account of them until we come to speak of that county.

Property in land is said to be divided more into small estates in this county than in any other part of England; and near two thirds of the county are thus parcelled out and held by what is called *customary tenure*. Cumberland has but few gentlemen's seats.

CHAP. IX.—*Derbyshire.*

Derbyshire is bounded by Nottinghamshire on the east; by Leicestershire on the south; by Staffordshire and Cheshire on the west; and by Yorkshire on the

the north. It is about fifty miles long, and its extreme breadth to the north thirty miles.

The principal rivers of this county are the Derwent, the Dove, and the Erewash. The Derwent rises in the Peak of Derby, and passing Derby joins the Trent eight miles below that town: the Dove rises also in the Peak, and joins the Trent near Burton; it is famous for its trout, and a fish called graylings. The Erewash separates the counties of Derby and Nottingham, and likewise falls into the Trent.

Derbyshire affords two very remarkable variations both in air and soil. In the eastern division the air is healthy; in the western it is sharp, the weather variable, and storms more frequent. The soil which adjoins the rivers is in every part fruitful, and in the eastern division generally so; but in the western the face of the country is rude and mountainous, and the soil, except in the vallies, rocky and steril. These parts are noted for their mines and quarries, and produce great quantities of lead, antimony, vitriol, alum, mill-stones, grind-stones, marble, alabaster, pit-coal, and iron.

With these commodities, and with malt and ale, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade.

Derbyshire is in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Lichfield and Coventry, and contains about 106 parishes, is divided into six hundreds, and has one borough and ten market-towns.

Derby is the county-town and the only borough, distant 126 miles from London, situated on the western banks of the Derwent, over which are four stone bridges. This town is a royal borough, made so in the reign of Edward the Confessor; it was afterwards incorporated by a charter of Charles I. It has five parishes, in each of which is a church; that of All Saints has a tower 178 feet high.

The

The town-hall is a large and beautiful building. In an island of the Derwent, near the town, is the celebrated silk-mill, which has 26,586 wheels, and 97,346 movements, all worked by one water-wheel. The trade of this town is not very considerable, although it has a staple and mart for wool; its chief commerce is in corn and malt. It has several manufactures of small articles. Some ale is brewed here. The Derwent has been made navigable from hence to the Trent.

The other market-towns are Alfreton, Ashborn, Bakewell, Bolsover, Chapel in the Frith, Chesterfield, Dronfield, Tideswell, Winster, and Wirksworth.

Alfreton is remarkable only for its ale. Ashborn deals largely in cheese. Bakewell has only one church, but several chapels, being a very large town, and its trade is very considerable in lead. At Bolsover they make fine tobacco-pipes. The romantic situation called Dove Dale is near this town. Chesterfield is populous and well built, and has a church of a fine structure. Its trade is considerable, and its market well supplied with lead, grocery, malt, leather, stockings, blankets, &c. Wirksworth is a handsome town, and the greatest market for lead in England, the furnaces for smelting it being in the neighbourhood.

The produce of the mines in this county is very considerable, and yield a large profit to those who work them. The curiosities of the county are those of the Peak, consisting of an extraordinary mountain called Eden Hole, Buxton Wells, the spring called Tides Well, Pool's Hole, and the cavern vulgarly called the Devil's Arse. Rocking stones are also found, fossil bones, and some extraordinary cavities and mineral springs, the principal of which is at Matlock. The

The ancient inhabitants of this county were called Coritani; during the Saxon heptarchy it formed part of the kingdom of Mercia.

Derbyshire possesses some fine seats, as Bretby, Haddon Hall, Keddleston, Sudbury, and Sutton; but the chief is Chatsworth, belonging to the Duke of Devonshire.

CHAP. X.—*Devonshire*

Is bounded by the English channel on the south; by the Bristol channel on the north; by Cornwall on the west; and by Somersetshire on the east. It is sixty-nine miles long, and sixty-six broad.

The principal rivers of this county are the Tamar and Ex. The Tamar parts Devonshire and Cornwall, and at its confluence with the sea forms a fine harbour called Hamoaze. The Ex rises in a barren tract called Exmoor, near the Bristol channel, and, after receiving several rivers, passes Exeter, and meets the sea at Exmouth. The other rivers are the Taw, the Lad, the Oke, which runs into Barnstaple bay, the Teem, the Torridge, and Dart, which runs into the sea at Dartmouth.

The air of this county is so remarkably mild, that the myrtle grows in the gardens; it is also pleasant and healthful. The soil in the western part is moorish and barren; in the northern parts it is dry, and has fine downs for sheep; in the middle parts the soil is a rich marle, and fertile. In the eastern it is strong, produces much corn, and excellent peas. The southern parts are so fertile as to be called the Garden of Devon.

The fine rivers of this county produce excellent salmon. It has also mines of lead, and formerly had them of tin, but they have been worked out. Veins of loadstone are likewise found here, and quarries of stone for building.

The

The manufactures of the county are serges, kerseys, long ells, shalloons, broad cloths, narrow cloths, and bone-lace; in which, and in corn, cattle, wool, and sea-fish, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade.

It is divided into thirty-three hundreds, and has one city and thirty-seven borough and market towns, three of which, Ashburton, Plympton, and Tavistock, are stannary towns.

Exeter is distant from London about 170 miles, and was incorporated by King John and Henry VIII. It is governed by a mayor, twenty aldermen, &c. and has thirteen city companies. The city being a county in itself, the mayor can try causes. It had anciently a mint, and as late as the reign of King William III. money was coined there. Exeter is a bishop's see, and one of the first cities in England for buildings, wealth, and number of inhabitants. It has a wall, six gates, and four principal streets which meet each other at a part of the city called Carfox; has a bridge over the Ex, and is well supplied with water by a conduit. The castle is much decayed, but the assizes, county courts, &c. are kept there. The cathedral is a curious and magnificent building; near it are the houses for the dean and chapter. In Exeter are sixteen churches besides chapels. By means of sluices and gates, vessels of 150 tons burden come up to the quay. The trade of this city in serges, long ells, druggets, &c. is immense. Here is a cloth-market kept, formerly the next to that of Leeds, in Yorkshire; but the industry of other towns has lately rivalled it. The stuffs are purchased for Portugal, Spain, Italy, Holland, and Germany. Topsham is properly the port of Exeter.

The borough-towns are Ashburton, Barnstaple,

Beeralston, Dartmouth, Honiton, Plymouth, Plympton, Okehampton, Tavistock, and Totness.

Ashburton is a borough by prescription. The town consists of a good street, has a handsome church in form of a cathedral, and a chapel; it stands on the river Dart, has a manufactory of serge, and mines of tin and copper in the neighbourhood.

Barnstaple is situated on a river called the Taw. It was incorporated by Queen Mary; has a stone bridge, a harbour which was formerly deep, but is now become so shallow, that great part of the commerce is removed to Biddeford. It has, however, some merchants and foreign trade, and a large trade with the serge-makers of Exeter, who come here to buy wool, yarn, and fish.

Beeralston is a borough by prescription, and governed by an officer called a portreeve; it is, however, only a hamlet.

Dartmouth is a corporation formed of three distinct towns, Dartmouth, Clifton, and Hardness, is a mile long, has three churches, and a good harbour defended by three castles. Its chief trade is to Newfoundland, and it has a considerable share of the pilchard fishery.

Honiton is a borough by prescription, governed by a portreeve chosen annually at the court of the lord of the manor. It is situated in one of the most beautiful parts of England, is a populous town, and has a bridge over the river Otter. The first manufacture of serge in Devonshire is carried on here.

Okehampton is a borough, and has a manufactory for cloths. It stands on the Oke.

Plymouth is a borough, situated on a small river called the Plym, which falls into Plymouth sound on one side the town, as the Tamar does on the

other,

other. It has two harbours, one for merchant-ships only, the other is one of the principal stations of the English navy, called Hamoaze, and is perhaps as fine a harbour as any in the world. Here are a citadel, a royal dock-yard, and two handsome churches. Round the dock-yard a town has sprung up called the Dock Town. The Sound without the harbour has good anchorage for ships.

Plympton Earle is situated on the river Plym, and sends two burgesses to parliament. It is one of the stannary towns, and populous.

Tavistock is a borough by prescription, is a stannary town, large, and well built.

Tiverton is noted for the greatest woollen manufactory, except Exeter, in the county. It is a borough by charter.

Totness is a borough by prescription, and has a considerable woollen trade.

The other market-towns are Axminster, Bampton, Biddeford, Bowe, Brent, Chimley, Chadleigh, Collumpton, Coomb-Martin, Crediton, Colliton, Dodbrook, Hartland, Hatherly, Houlsworthy, Ilfracombe, Kingsbridge, Modbury, Moreton, Moulton, Newton-Bushel, Ottery, Sidmouth, Topsham, and Torrington.

Axminster is situated on the Axe, is a clean, healthy town, and has a trade in kerseys, druggets, and other woollens.

Biddeford is situated on the river Torridge, which a little below joins the Taw, and forms Barnstaple bay. It has a civil court for trying causes for any sum. It is a clean, well-built town, running parallel to the river, with a noble quay and custom-house, where ships can load and unload in the heart of the town. It has a large church and a fine bridge. The merchants of this town trade to the

the West Indies, Newfoundland, Ireland, &c. Herrings are taken near to it in abundance.

Collumpton has a considerable woollen manufactory.

Coomb-Martin was once famous for its mines.

Crediton has a large manufactory of serge.

Hartland has a considerable herring fishery.

Ilfracombe, on the Bristol channel, is a rich and populous place, has a harbour or pier, great conveniences for building and repairing ships, and a lighthouse.

South Moulton has a considerable manufactory in serges, shalloons, and silk.

Sidmouth was once a considerable port, but the harbour is choked up, and it is now only one of the chief fishing-towns of the county.

Topsham has a harbour, and a considerable trade, particularly to Newfoundland and Spain. It in some degree serves as a port for Exeter.

Torrington, or Great Torrington, is the place where the petty sessions and other meetings are held. It has two churches, a library, and a bridge over the Torridge.

At the entrance of Plymouth sound is the Eddistone rock, on which a most substantial lighthouse is built, of great use to ships navigating the English channel. In the forest of Dartmoor is a hill where the tinners by charter assemble their parliaments. At Brixham, a village three miles from Dartmouth, is a spring which ebbs and flows from one to eleven times in an hour.

In the neighbourhoods of Exeter, Plymouth, Tiverton, and Crediton, are found many antiquities.

Devonshire was anciently inhabited by the Danmonii, and afterwards formed part of the kingdom of the West-Saxons.

The beauty of the country, and the mildness of the

the climate, are so superior to that of any other part of England, that medical men now recommend it to their patients. This mildness causes Devonshire to have little winter, except on the high land of Dartmoor: these mountains, however, are of great use, as they form the grand reservoir from whence it is almost every where supplied with water.

Great plenty of provisions is a natural event from this fine climate, and Devonshire was till of late one of the cheapest counties in England. All these recommendations have induced a vast number of the nobility and gentry to build seats in this county; among the principal of which are, Berry-Pomeroy, Buckleigh Court, Castle Hill, Downs, Estcott, Haldon House, Kirby, Mamhead, Mount Buckland, Mount Edgecombe, Okehampton, Poltimore, Powderham Castle, Rockbear, Saltram, Tapleigh, and Tiverton Castle.

CHAP. XI.—*Dorsetshire*

Borders on Devonshire and part of Somersetshire to the west; Wiltshire and another part of Somersetshire to the north; Hampshire to the east; and is watered by the English channel to the south. It is about fifty miles long and forty broad, and contains 775,000 acres of land.

The principal rivers of this county are the Stour and the Frome; the former, rising in Somersetshire, runs past Sturminster and Blandford, and falls into the English channel at Christchurch; the latter rises in this county, passes Dorchester, and falls into Pool harbour near Wareham.

The air of this county is extremely healthy; on the hills it is sharp, but mild and pleasant near the coasts. The soil is rich and fertile, and in point of natural advantages stands next to Devonshire.

The

The rivers afford plenty of fish, as does the adjoining ocean. The rocks produce the weed called samphire. Here are poultry and game in abundance; and the county abounds with corn, cattle, wood, and timber. Portland island, or peninsula, is famous for its quarries of excellent stone, as Purbeck in the same county is also.

This county has considerable woollen and coarse linen manufactories; it makes much cordage, brews fine ale, and produces large quantities of cider.

The borough-towns are Dorchester, Pool, Lyme, Bridport, Shaftesbury, Wareham, and Corfe Castle, each of which sends two members, and the united corporations of Weymouth and Melcomb Regis send four.

Dorsetshire is divided into thirty-four hundreds, and contains nine boroughs and thirteen market-towns, has 248 parishes, and is in the diocese of Bristol.

Dorchester, the county town, is distant 123 miles from London, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, &c. The assizes and county elections are held here. It consists of three streets, clean and well paved, and situated on an ascent: here are three churches, a chapel, the county jail, a good free-school, and some almshouses. This town was once famous for its woollen manufactory, which is much decayed. The principal business is the grazing sheep, of which 600,000 are fed within six miles of the town: malt is made here.

Pool is a very ancient borough, sent members to parliament under Edward I. and by charter of Queen Elizabeth was made a county within itself, with a sheriff and a separate civil and criminal court. It is governed by a mayor and other officers; the mayor is admiral within its liberties. The

 town

town contains about 400 houses, has a church, a large and ancient structure, and a beautiful town-hall. Pool is one of the most considerable ports of the west, and carries on a large trade to Newfoundland.

Lyme, called so from the rivulet on which it stands, and sometimes Lyme Regis, is also an ancient borough, by charter granted by Edward I. who gave it great privileges. These privileges have since been several times confirmed. Here are some fine houses, an excellent harbour, and a jetty of a singular construction called the Cobb, whereon are the custom-house and warehouses. This town also trades largely to Newfoundland.

Bridport was made a borough by Henry VII. has two churches, but one is in ruins; it once had a harbour, which was lost by neglect. It has some considerable manufactures, especially in twine and rope-making.

Corfe Castle has had many favours granted by various sovereigns. It stands in the isle of Purbeck, the lord of the manor of which appoints all officers. The church is large, and is a royal peculiar exempt from episcopal jurisdiction.

Shaftesbury is large, and many of the houses are built of freestone; in other respects it has little remarkable.

Wareham stands on the river Frome, and has three churches; but has little trade, except in shipping the clay found near it.

Weymouth and Melcomb Regis stand opposite each other on the Wey. As a corporation it is united; but each sends two members to parliament. The towns are also united by a bridge. Melcomb is tolerably well built; but the chief trade is carried on

on from Weymouth, by which name the port is called.

The other market-towns are Abbotsbury, Beminster, Bere Regis, Blandford, Cerne Abbey, Evershot, Frampton, Milton, Sherborne, Stalbridge, Sturminster-Newton, Sturminster-Marshall, and Wimbourn-Minster. Of these

Blandford is very handsome town, having been rebuilt after a dreadful fire which nearly consumed the whole town. It has a bridge over the Stour, and is a very considerable thoroughfare. Its principal traders are clothiers and maltsters.

Sherborne is an ancient town, once a bishop's see, now translated to Salisbury, but never sent members to parliament: the river Parret runs through it. The church is a most magnificent structure.

Wimbourn-Minster has a church, a noble edifice, built in the manner of a cathedral, and has a choir; the town is populous, but poor, and has only a manufacture of knit stockings.

Dorsetshire, among the Britons, formed a part of the territory of the Durobrigæ, and, under the Saxons, was a part of the West Saxon kingdom. It has, therefore, a very considerable number of Saxon antiquities.

This county is ornamented with many fine seats, as Abbotsbury, Bryanstone, Sherborne Castle, Stalbridge, Lulworth Castle, Wimbourn, Frampton, &c.

CHAP. XII.—*Durham County*

Has Northumberland to the north; the river Tees, which divides it from Yorkshire, on the south; the German ocean on the east; Cumberland and part of Northumberland on the west. It is about thirty-nine miles long and thirty broad.

This

This county is usually termed the Bishopric, the bishop having extraordinary powers, formerly the same as the King exercised.

The chief rivers of this county are the Tees and Were: the former rises on the borders of Cumberland, and falls into the German ocean below Stockton; the latter rises in the same part of the county, and falls into the same ocean near Sunderland. The Derwent forms a boundary between this county and Northumberland.

The air of the county is healthy, but sharp in the western parts, milder near the sea. The soil is various; some parts mountainous and barren, others fruitful. The county abounds in mines of lead, iron, and particularly coal. In the rivers are plenty of fish, especially salmon.

This county is not divided into hundreds, but into four wards. It has one city and seven market-towns. The diocese of Durham, the bishop of which has many peculiar privileges, lies in the province of York. In the county are fifty-two very large parishes. This county has one city, no borough, and eight market-towns.

The market-towns are Auckland, Bishop's Castle, Barnard Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, Stockton, and Sunderland.

The ancient city of Durham, called by the Saxons Dunholme, the first syllable signifying a hill, and the latter an island, from its situation, being almost surrounded by the river Were, was first incorporated by Richard I. and has a charter from Charles II. It is agreeably situated and surrounded by a wall, has a magnificent cathedral with a fine cloister, and six parish-churches, a tolbooth and two stone bridges over the Were, and sends two members to parliament. It has a manufactory of shalloons and calimancoes.

Bishop's

Bishop's Auckland, situated likewise on the Were, is reckoned one of the best towns in the county, and is so called from having a palace belonging to the bishop.

At Barnard Castle are manufactures of stockings, bridles, reins, and belts.

Darlington is a spacious town, and has manufactures of coarse linen cloths.

Hartlepool stands by the side of the sea, and has a fishery, and sends considerable quantities of coal to London, &c.

Stockton upon Tees, situated near the mouth of that river, is a place considerable for its trade in coals, lead, butter, and bacon, to London.

Sunderland is likewise a considerable coal port.

In this county are some salt and medicinal springs, and on the coast salt-works.

The bishopric of Durham was anciently the country of the Brigantes; under the Saxons it formed part of the kingdom of Northumberland. The bishops of Durham are counts palatine, the bishop being sovereign, and had formerly a power to create barons. His palatine right was founded on prescription, but the act 27 Henry VIII. abridged his jurisdiction; he is, however, still perpetual justice of the peace within the county, and temporal chancellor. The admiralty jurisdiction also belongs to him.

There are many monuments of antiquity in this county, and some fine seats, as at Bishop's Auckland, Gateshead, Gibside, Lambton House, Lumley Castle, Raby, Ravensworth, Stanhope and Streatham Castles, &c.

CHAP. XIII.—*Essex.*

Essex borders on Suffolk and Cambridgeshire to the north; the German ocean on the east; the river

river Thames, which separates it from Kent, on the south; and Middlesex and Hertfordshire on the west. In length it is about forty-seven miles, in breadth forty-three.

The chief rivers of this county are the Thames, Stour, Coln, Blackwater, and Chelmer. The Thames flows between this county and Kent; the Stour separates it from Suffolk, and enters the German ocean at Harwich; the Lea separates Essex from Hertford and Middlesex, and runs into the Thames near Blackwall; the Coln passes Halsted and Colchester, and joins the German ocean about seven miles from that town; the Blackwater falls into the Chelmer near Malden, near which place the Chelmer, having watered Malden, falls into the sea.

The air is in general healthy, except in two or three hundreds bordering on the sea. These parts, however, abound with rich pastures and corn-land. In the inland parts the soil is chiefly gravel and sand. In the northern parts is a considerable growth of saffron and some few hops. The whole county is well stored with provisions, of which corn, oxen, and sheep, are sent in great plenty to London. The shores abound with fish.

The chief manufactures of this county are cloths and stuffs. Colchester is the great seat of these manufactures.

The county is divided into twenty hundreds, has three borough and seventeen market towns; it lies in the province of Canterbury, and has 415 parishes. The borough-towns are Colchester, Harwich, and Malden. The market-towns, Barking, Billericay, Braintree, Brentwood, Chipping-Ongar, Chelmsford, Coggeshall, Dunmow, Epping, Grays Thurrock, Halsted, Hatfield-Broadoak, Ingatestone,

gatestone, Manningtree, Rayleigh, Rochford, Rumford, Thaxted, Walden, Waltham, and Witham.

Colchester is situated on the Coln, was incorporated by William III. and is the largest town in the county; it has sixteen parish-churches, one Dutch, one French church, and several meeting-houses, and the most considerable manufacture of baize and serge in the kingdom. It sends two members to parliament.

Harwich is a very ancient town, and is said to have had its name from the Saxons. It was incorporated by James I. and has a good harbour, the entrance of which is commanded by Languard fort. This is the station in time of peace for the packet-boats between England and Holland. Harwich has only a chapel of ease.

Malden stands on a bay near the mouth of the river Blackwater, and is a large town, consisting of one street near a mile long. It has a good haven for ships of 400 tons, and has a considerable trade in coals, iron, deals, and corn.

Barking stands on a creek of the same name, which falls into the Thames, and is chiefly inhabited by fishermen. The town is large, as is the parish, and the inhabitants supply London with fish.

Chelmsford derives its name from its situation on the Chelmer, over which it has a bridge. It is a large and populous town, situated about thirty miles from London, and being nearly the centre of the county, is the place where the assizes, quarter sessions, and county courts, are held, and also the election of knights of the shire. The chief support of this place is the passage of cattle, carriages, and travellers.

Dunmow is situated on a hill washed by the Chelmer;

mer; it is an ancient town, and has a manufactory of baize.

Epping stands on the side of a fine forest, sometimes called Epping, and sometimes Waltham forest.

Walden, or Saffron Walden, stands on the borders of Cambridgeshire, was incorporated by King Edward VI. and has since received a charter from King William. Here is a good church, and a free school on a royal foundation. The saffron raised in the neighbourhood is said to be the best in the kingdom.

Essex was anciently part of the country of the Trinobantes, and afterwards of the kingdom of Essex or the East Saxons.

There are several ancient military camps, and the remains of a Roman military way from Colchester to London.

Essex, from its vicinity to the metropolis, is much frequented by the rich merchants and traders of London, who have erected their country seats here. There are also many fine seats of the nobility and gentry, as Albury Hall, Albyns, Audley House, Barrington Hall, Copped Hall, Dagnam, Danbury, Gosfield, Mistley Hall, Navestock, St. Osyth, Quendon Hall, Thorndon Hall, Valentines, Wanstead, Writtle, &c.

CHAP. XIV.—*Gloucestershire*,

Bounded by Warwickshire and Oxfordshire on the east; Herefordshire and Monmouthshire on the west; Worcestershire and Warwickshire on the north; and Wiltshire and Somersetshire on the south; is about fifty-six miles long and twenty-six broad.

The chief rivers of this county are the Severn, the Wye, the Stroud, and the two Avons. The

Severn

Severn is esteemed the second river in England, rises on the east side of the mountain of Plinlimmon in Wales, passes through Shropshire, Worcester, and Gloucestershire, and by the city of Gloucester, below which it runs into the Bristol channel. The Wye rises near the source of the Severn, separates Radnorshire from Breckockshire, passes through Herefordshire, and then dividing Monmouthshire from Gloucestershire falls into the Severn near Chepstow. The Stroud rises near Painswick, and falls into the Severn near Gloucester. One Avon rises in Northamptonshire, passes through Warwickshire, and falls into the Severn near Tewkesbury; the other, the West Severn, rises in Wiltshire, and separating Gloucestershire from Somersetshire, passes Bristol and falls into the Severn.

The county is divided into three districts; the eastern, called Cotswold; the middle, called the Vale of Gloucester; and that between the Wye, the Severn, and the Lodden, called the forest of Dean.

In Cotswold the air is sharp; but in the Vale soft and mild, even in winter: all parts are equally healthy. Cotswold, from its situation being hilly, is not so fertile for grain; it affords, however, very fine pasture, and the wool of the sheep is excellent. In the Vale the soil is fertile; here the best cheese of the county is made. The forest of Dean contains 30,000 acres; but where wood only grew in the reign of Henry VI. many towns and villages have been built. The oak of this forest is excellent. Here are also many rich mines of iron and coal. The county in general abounds with grain, cattle, fowl, and game. The rivers afford plenty of fish; and the inhabitants make bacon and cider, both excellent in their kind.

The

The chief manufacture of the county is woollen cloth. It is divided into thirteen hundreds, lies in the province of Canterbury, is a diocese of itself, and contains 280 parishes. It has one city (Gloucester), two boroughs (Cirencester and Tewkesbury), and twenty-three market-towns.

Gloucester (the city) was by the Britons called Caerglow, or the Fair city. It is a bishop's see, and has a charter from Charles II. by which it is directed to be governed by a high steward, mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common council. The city is well built, clean, and healthy, and stands on a pleasant hill by the side of the Severn. The cathedral is a magnificent fabric, the tower a most curious piece of architecture. The city has also five parish-churches. Pin-making is the chief manufacture. It is 109 miles from London.

Cirencester, commonly called Ciciter, standing on a small river called the Churn, that joins the Thames at Lechlade, is thought to be the most ancient town in the county. It has charters from Henry IV. and Queen Elizabeth, and sends two members to parliament. This is one of the chief marts in the kingdom for wool and woollen manufactures.

Tewkesbury, situated at the confluence of the Severn and Avon, received its privileges from Edward II. and was reincorporated by James I. It is a large, handsome, and populous town, has three bridges over the adjoining river, and a very large church, in which are several monuments of English princes. The chief manufactures are woollen cloth and stockings.

The market-towns are Berkley, Campden, Cheltenham, Colford, Great Dean, Dursley, Fairford, Lechlade, Marshfield, Minching-Hampton, Morton in the Marsh, Newent, Northleach, Painswick,

 Sodbury

Sodbury (Chipping), Stanley (Leonard), Stow on the Would, Stroud, Tetbury, Thornbury, Wickware, Winchomb, and Wootton-under-Edge.

Berkley has a castle, in which Edward II. was imprisoned. Campden is famous for its manufactory of stockings. Cheltenham has been greatly frequented for its mineral waters. Great Dean has in its neighbourhood much iron, and some furnaces for smelting. The manufacture of the town is pins. Dursley has a woollen manufactory.

Fairford is remarkable for some beautiful paintings in glass, designed by Albert Durer, and which are well preserved. At Lechlade the Thames begins to be navigable, and from hence the canal runs which unites that river with the Severn. Marshfield has a considerable trade in cloth and malt. Stow on the Would, or Stow St. Edward, stands on an eminence, and is famous for its fairs for hops, cheese, and sheep. Tetbury has a considerable trade in yarn. The other market-towns have nothing remarkable.

The natural curiosities of the county are Pen Park Hole, a remarkable cavern, and St. Vincent's rock near Bristol, where the Bristol stones are found. At Clifton, near the same rock, are the hot wells, famous for curing many disorders.

The ancient inhabitants of this county were the Dobuni; the city of Gloucester was a Roman colony; the county formed part of the Saxon kingdom of Mercia. Several Roman pavements have been found in the county, and it once had a great number of monasteries.

The chief seats of the nobility and gentry in this county are Badminton, Berkley Castle, Cirencester, Dean, Doddington, Fairford, High-Meadow, King's Weston, Shirburne, Spring Park, and Tuddington.

CHAP.

CHAP. XV.—*Hampshire, called also the County of Southampton,*

Is bounded by Dorsetshire and Wiltshire on the west; Berkshire on the north; Surry and Sussex on the east; and the English channel on the south. In length it is sixty-four miles, in breadth thirty-six.

The chief rivers of the county are the Avon, the Test, and the Itching. The Avon being a term applied to many rivers, it may be necessary to observe, that Avon in the ancient British language was an appellative for a river. This Avon rises in Wiltshire, becomes navigable at Salisbury, proceeds to Christchurch, where it receives the Stour, and just below falls into the English channel. The Test passes Stockbridge and Rumsey, and falls into Southampton water. The Itching rises near Alresford, passes through Winchester, and likewise runs into Southampton water.

The air of the county is in general pure and healthy; the hilly parts are barren, and fit only for sheep; the low grounds produce good crops of grain. In sheep and hogs this county equals any: the sheep are fine both in flesh and wool; the hogs are fed chiefly with acorns, and the bacon is the best in England. Hampshire is also famous for its honey. The county is well supplied with fish, and the forests produce great plenty of oak.

The chief manufactures of the county are kerseys and other cloths.

Hampshire, including the Isle of Wight, is divided into thirty-nine hundreds, has one city, eleven boroughs, and nine market-towns. It lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Winchester, and has about 260 parishes.

Winchester is almost surrounded with a wall, and

and has six gates, with suburbs. The streets are broad and clean, and some small canals run through them. In the High Street is a handsome town-hall, where the assizes are kept. Here is also a royal palace begun by Charles II. but never completed. The see of Winchester is one of the richest in the kingdom; it was founded in 663. The bishop has some peculiar privileges; such as being always prelate of the order of the Garter, and chancellor to the Archbishop of Canterbury. In Winchester there were once thirty-two parish-churches, of which six only remain, besides the cathedral, which is a large and venerable pile, begun about the year 1070, and finished by William of Wickham. In this cathedral several of our Saxon kings were buried; also the second Norman king, William Rufus; and William of Wickham, who founded the college of St. Mary, commonly called Winchester college, which is a noble institution. Here is also a magnificent hospital, called the Holy Cross.

The borough-towns are Andover, Christchurch, Lymington, Petersfield, Portsmouth, Southampton, Stockbridge, Whitchurch. In the Isle of Wight are Newport, Newton, and Yarmouth.

Andover is situated on a small river called the Ande, was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth, is a handsome town, and sends, like all the other boroughs of this county, two members to parliament.

Christchurch also sends two members. Its chief manufactures are silk stockings and gloves.

Lymington is small, but populous, and stands near the sea. Here are some extensive salt-works.

Petersfield is populous, but known only as a throughfare between London and Portsmouth.

Portsmouth, called so from being situated at the mouth of a creek, stands on a small island, called Portsea,

Portsea, is a borough, and a fortified town, the only one regularly fortified in England; it is justly celebrated as having one of the finest harbours, one of the most extensive naval arsenals, and for one of the finest roads for shipping (Spithead) in the world. The harbour has a good depth of water, and the entrance is well defended. In the dock-yard is every accommodation for naval service, and a very large part of the justly boasted navy of England are kept here. The town itself is clean, and the prospect from the walls beautiful.

Southampton stands between the rivers Test and Itching, was incorporated as early as the reign of Henry II. and made a county of itself by Henry IV. It has a good harbour, and is a place of considerable trade, particularly in wine. The main street is one of the broadest in England, and of great length.

Stockbridge is a poor place, but is a borough by prescription.

Whitchurch is also a borough by prescription, and has a trade in shalloons, serges, and other woollen goods.

The other boroughs will be mentioned in the account of the Isle of Wight.

The market-towns are Alresford, Alton, Basingstoke, Fareham, Fordingbridge, Gosport, Havant, Kingsclear, Odiam, Rumsey, and Waltham.

Of these, Basingstoke is remarkable as a good market for all sorts of grain, and a considerable trade in malt; it has also a manufactory of drugget and shalloon. Gosport is a large town, stands opposite to Portsmouth, and is inhabited chiefly by seafaring people. Near this town, at Haslar, is a noble hospital for sick and wounded seamen of the royal navy. Ringwood is a flourishing town, where narrow cloths, stockings, and leather, are manufactured.

manufactured. Rumsey is inhabited by clothiers. The other market-towns are of little consequence.

In this county is the New Forest, of which so many tales are told respecting its depopulation by William the Conqueror; it is forty miles in circumference.

Hampshire was anciently inhabited by the Regni and the Belgæ; the southern parts by a people called the Segontiaci, and the eastern by a people called the Meanvari. Winchester is supposed to have been built by the Belgæ. That city was afterwards the capital of the West Saxon kings, and the county of Southampton formed part of that kingdom.

The Isle of Wight lies south of the county of Hants, from which it is separated by a narrow channel called the Solent-sea, the greatest breadth of which is between four and five miles; near Yarmouth it is not two miles.

This island has only one river, called Cowes, and which rises near the southern part of the island, and divides it into two nearly equal parts.

The air of this charming island is pleasant and healthy; the inhabitants are stout and vigorous, and live to a great age. The soil is extremely fruitful, the northern in pastures, and the southern part in corn. In the middle of the island, from east to west, is a ridge of hills, which add to the prospects, and afford pasture for sheep. It is fortified all round with rocks, particularly those called the Shingles and Needles.

In the island are two hundreds and three borough, which are also market towns. It has a military governor, and in ecclesiastical affairs is subject to the bishop of Winchester.

The borough of Newport is large and populous, and was chartered by James I. Newton is an inconsiderable

siderable place. Yarmouth, called South Yarmouth, to distinguish it from the other town of that name in Norfolk, was also incorporated by the same monarch. The Isle of Wight was anciently inhabited by the Belgæ, conquered by the Romans A. D. 45, and afterwards subject to the Jutes, Mercians, and West Saxons. It was, together with Jersey and Guernsey, erected by Henry VI. into a kingdom in favour of the Duke of Warwick, but he dying without issue, these islands lost their royalty.

Besides the New Forest, there are other forests in Hampshire, which were once well clothed with trees; but these are very much reduced. These forests are Alice Holt, Woolmer, and Bere. The island of Wight was formerly well furnished with timber, but the inhabitants found so good a sale for it at Portsmouth, that little now remains.

CHAP. XVI.—*Herefordshire*

Has Shropshire on the north; Monmouthshire and Gloucestershire on the south; Worcestershire on the east; and the counties of Brecknock and Radnor in Wales on the west. In length it is thirty-five miles, in breadth nearly the same.

This county is watered by the Wye, Monow, Teme, and Lug. The former river has been already described. The Monow rises in Radnorshire, divides this county from Monmouthshire, and falls into the Wye at Monmouth. The Teme parts this county from Shropshire, and runs into Worcestershire. The Lug rises in Radnorshire, and falls into the Wye below Hereford.

The air of this county is pure, the soil fertile. It is well stocked with wood; the apple-tree thrives here, and produces a great quantity of cider; and the county abounds in springs of fine water.

Herefordshire is divided into eleven hundreds,

has one city, Hereford, two boroughs and five other market-towns, lies in the diocese of Hereford, and has 176 parishes. The boroughs are Leominster and Weobley.

The city of Hereford stands on the Wye, is an ancient city, and has been of some note, having distinct trading companies, although the only manufacture now is gloves. Here the assizes, quarter sessions, and county courts, are held. The cathedral is a magnificent structure.

Of the borough-towns, Leominster, or Lemster, was incorporated by Queen Mary. It is a large town, has several bridges over the Lug, and is in the great thoroughfare between England and Wales. It has a beautiful church. At the fair many horses and large droves of black cattle are sold. Here is also a considerable trade in wool, flax, barley, and wheat, and also in gloves, leather, and hats.

Weobley is of little note, and is a borough by prescription.

The other market-towns are Bromyard, Kington or Kyneton, Ledbury, Penkridge, and Ross.

Kington is a large town, inhabited by clothiers.

Ledbury is a well-built town, likewise inhabited by clothiers. Ross is a populous town on the Wye, much frequented on account of its fairs and market. The town is famous for its cider.

This county was under the Britons part of the country of the Silures; was afterwards subdued by the Saxon kings of Mercia, by one of whom, Offa, a broad ditch was cut, which runs through this county, to secure it from the incursions of the Welsh.

As this county produces a great quantity of cider, it follows, that a large portion of land must be laid out in orchards of apple-trees, which do not seem

to

to receive all that degree of attention they deserve, as the liquor produced from them forms a wholesome and healthy beverage, and is not so subject to cause intoxication as malt liquor. Hops form also a considerable article of cultivation in this county. The highways of this county, which are not made turnpike, are some of the worst in England.

There are many noblemen and gentlemen's seats in this county, as at Brampton Bryan, Croft Castle, Devereux, Hampton, Holm Court, the Meend, Shobdon Court, and Woverland.

CHAP. XVII.—*Hertfordshire*

Has Cambridgeshire on the north; Middlesex on the south; Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire on the west; and Essex on the east. Its length is thirty-six miles, its breadth about twenty-eight.

The rivers which water this county are the Lea, Coln, Stort, Ver, and the New River. The first has been already described. The Coln rises near Hatfield, passes Watford, separates Buckinghamshire from Middlesex, and falls into the Thames near Staines. The Stort rises in the north-east part of the county, and, running by Bishop's Stortford, separates Hertfordshire from Essex, and falls into the Lea near Hoddesdon. The Ver passes St. Alban's, and runs into the Coln. The New River, which rises near Ware, has, at a very considerable expense, been conveyed through an artificial channel to London, a great part of which metropolis it supplies with water. The whole length of this course is about thirty-six miles. Before this stupendous work was undertaken, the city of London was supplied with water by aqueducts.

The air of this county is pure, and the soil for the most part rich. The chief produce of the county is wood, wheat, and other grain; both the

 wheat

wheat and barley of Hertfordshire are much prized. There is but little of manufacture in this county, the inhabitants being chiefly farmers, millers, maltsters, and dealers in corn.

Hertfordshire is divided into eight hundreds, and has nineteen market-towns, two of which, Hertford and St. Alban's, are borough-towns: the county lies partly in the diocese of London, and partly in that of Lincoln, and has about 170 parishes.

St. Alban's was built about the year 703, and is supposed to have risen out of the ancient Roman town called Verulam, situated on the other side of the Ver. It sent members to parliament as early as any borough in the kingdom, and has a charter and a peculiar jurisdiction. The town is large and populous, and has four parish-churches. St. Alban's, the abbey church, was founded by Offa, and is a large pile, remarkable both for its antiquity and beauty. The town has not any particular manufacture, but is one of the first markets in England for wheat.

Hertford was an ancient town of the Britons; the East Saxon kings often kept their courts here. On the first division of the kingdom into counties, it was made a county town, and has sent members to parliament, except for a short time, from the 1st of Edward I. It has charters from both Mary and James I. The town stands on the river Lea, in a fine dry vale, and has a castle (now the residence of a nobleman), a sessions house, with a county jail, and five parish churches. The chief commodities are wheat, malt, and wool.

The other market-towns are Baldock, Barkway, Barnet, Berkhempstead, Buntingford, Hatfield (Bishop's), Hempstead, Hitchin, Hoddesdon, Rickmansworth, Royston, Standon, Stevenage, Stortford (Bishop's), Tring, Ware, and Watford.

Baldock

Baldock is a large town, and its market both for corn and malt is considerable.

Barnet is on the great north road, and therefore well furnished with inns: it has also a considerable market for corn and cattle.

Berkhempstead is an ancient town; Henry II. kept his court there, and granted it many privileges. It once sent members to parliament. The town is large.

Hatfield (Bishop's) had once a royal palace, now the seat of the Marquis of Salisbury.

Hempstead is a populous town, and has one of the most considerable markets in England for meal. It has a manufacture of straw hats.

Hitchin is, in number of houses and inhabitants, judged to be the second town in the shire, is a market for malt and all sorts of grain. Hoddesdon has also a considerable corn-market.

Stortford (Bishop's) was made a corporation by King John, and formerly sent members to parliament. It is a considerable place and a great thoroughfare.

Tring is a considerable market-town, and has very large granaries.

Ware is one of the best post towns on the north road, and was founded by Edward the Elder in 914; it has a good market for corn and malt, and stands on the river Lea.

The other market-towns are of little note.

This county, before the Roman invasion, was inhabited partly by the Cattieuchlani, partly by the Trinobantes, and partly by the Cassii. Under the Saxons it was also divided between the Mercians and the kings of Kent. There are some ancient camps in this county, and the Ermine street, one of the old Roman ways, passes through it. It is generally allowed, that Verulam (the present

St. Alban's) was a Roman municipium, and stood on the Watling street; that way must, therefore, have passed also through this county.

The map of this county appears as it were covered with parks and fine seats; among them are Albury, Ashridge, Balls, Bayford-Bury, Bedwell, Brocket Hall, Broxburnbury, Bury Park, Cashiobury, Cheshunt, Cole Green, Gorhambury, Hatfield, Knebworth, Moor Park, North Mims, Penshanger, Roefield, Sacombe, Temple, Tittenhanger, Totteridge, Tring, Ware, and Wood Hall.

Chap. XVIII.—*Huntingdonshire,*

Bounded north and west by Northamptonshire and Cambridgeshire; east by Cambridgeshire; west by Bedford and Northampton shires; and south by Bedfordshire; is only twenty-four miles long and eighteen broad, being one of the smallest counties in England, and contains about 210,000 acres of land.

The chief rivers are the Ouse and Nen. The former rises near Brackley in Northamptonshire, passes Bedford, St. Neots, and the town of Huntingdon, and running across Cambridgeshire and Norfolk, falls into the German ocean near Lynn. The Nen rises in the same county, and forms some lakes, or meers, as they are called, in its passage through this county, Cambridge, and Lincoln shires; it falls into the German ocean near Wisbeach.

By the number of fens, meers, and other standing waters, this county is less wholesome than some others. The soil is, however, fruitful, and yields good crops of corn; the meadows are rich, and abundance of cattle are fed for the dairy: the cheese made at Stilton is much admired.

The county is not remarkable for manufactures. It has only four hundreds, and with Cambridgeshire

and

and the isle of Ely is under one sheriff: it has six market-towns, one of which is a borough.

Huntingdon is the county town, about sixty miles from London, and had once fifteen churches, now reduced to two. It was chartered by King John, is a populous town and considerable thoroughfare, sends two members to parliament, and stands on a hill near the Ouse, over which it has a bridge.

The other market-towns are St. Ives, Kimbolton, St. Neots, Ramsey, and Yaxley.

St. Ives stands on the Ouse, is a considerable market-town for cattle, and in the Saxon times was the station of a mint. The other market-towns have nothing particular.

Kimbolton has a castle which is esteemed a great ornament to the county, and the seat of the Duke of Manchester.

Ramsey is every where encompassed by fens, except to the west, where it is joined to the land by a causeway, garnished with elders, reeds, and bulrushes, which in the spring make a fine appearance. The meers in this neighbourhood abound with water-fowl and fish.

Huntingdonshire has some good pieces of antiquity remaining, as at Godmanchester, Dornford, Ramsey Abbey, and some remains of ancient castles.

The Iceni formerly possessed this county, and under the Saxons it formed part of the kingdom of Mercia.

The chief seats are, Bugden, Chesterton, Everton, Glaston, Hinchinbrook House, Kimbolton, Longthorpe, St. Neots, Ramsey Abbey, Stewksley, and Wabridge.

CHAP. XIX.—*Kent County.*

This county is by Cæsar called Cantium; the Saxons

Saxons called it *Kant guar landt*, the land of the Kentish men, and it has all along preserved the same name. It is bounded by Sussex and the English channel on the south; the river Thames on the north; the German ocean on the east; and Surry on the west: is in length fifty-six miles, in breadth thirty-six.

The chief rivers are the Medway, Stour, and Darent. The former rises in Sussex, passes by Tunbridge, Maidstone, and Rochester, to the Thames, but below Rochester divides into two branches, called the East and West Swale, and forms the Isle of Sheppey. There is also a branch that takes another direction to the Thames, and forms the Isle of Grain. The Stour consists of two streams, called the Greater and Lesser; both rise in the southern part called the weald of Kent; the greater runs through the city of Canterbury, the other through Eleham; they join in a portion of their course, and are then called the Wansum; they separate again, and one runs north-west, and the other south-east, and both fall into the German sea, and form the Isle of Thanet. The Darent rises near Westerham, and joins the Thames near Dartford.

The county is usually divided into three districts, East Kent, West Kent, and South Kent; or, Upper, Middle, and Lower Kent.

As great part of this county is surrounded by the sea and rivers, the air is thick and foggy. The soil is rich, and the part of the county near the Thames consists of chalk-hills, which afford the farmers good manure.

The county abounds with plantations of hops, fields of corn, and orchards: it produces woad and madder for dyers. The south and west parts, called the Weald, are well furnished with woods of oak, beech,

beech, chesnut, &c. The cattle are reckoned larger and finer than in the neighbouring counties.

Kent has no particular article of manufacture. It is divided in a peculiar manner first into five laths, each of which has two or more bailiwicks, making fourteen bailiwicks, and these again into seventy-eight hundreds. It has two cities, Canterbury and Rochester, two borough-towns; four of the Cinque Ports are situated within it (each of which towns sends two members to parliament); and upwards of twenty market-towns. It lies in the province of Canterbury, and has 408 parishes, partly in that diocese, and partly in the diocese of Rochester.

Canterbury is the metropolitan see of England, and one of the most ancient cities in the kingdom. It is a county within itself. Besides the cathedral, it has sixteen parish-churches. The cathedral is a noble Gothic building. Canterbury has a silk manufacture, a jail for criminals, and, including the cathedral and gardens, is near three miles in circumference. It is fifty-five miles from London.

Rochester is, next to Canterbury, the most ancient see in England. The city is but small, having only its cathedral and one parish-church. Here is a bridge over the Medway. The mayor and aldermen of Rochester have jurisdiction over the oyster fisheries in the Medway and its creeks. Some part of an old castle, said to have been built by William the Conqueror, is still standing; and many lands in the county are still held by castle-guard, that is, upon condition that the tenant should in his turn mount guard here; but a compensation is now taken for this service.

The towns sending members to parliament are Dover, Sandwich, Romney, and Hythe, and the boroughs of Maidstone and Queenborough.

The

The Cinque Ports form a very considerable jurisdiction under an officer called the Lord Warden; they were called thus, *The Cinque*, or Five Ports, by way of pre-eminence, on account of their importance in former times: our kings have granted them a peculiar form of government: they have three other ports dependant on them. The Cinque Ports of Kent are the three above named; Hythe is a dependant port. The other two Cinque Ports, and the two other dependant ports, are in Sussex. They have also many towns within their jurisdiction.

Dover is situated on the sea-shore on the narrowest part of the channel between England and France, the cliffs of Calais being less than thirty miles distant. It consists only of two streets built under a circular range of chalky cliffs, which form a bay; it has two churches, and is a place of great resort, being a direct passage to the continent. The harbour is fit only for small vessels, although it is aided by a pier. It is the station of the French packets. Near to this town is the celebrated road for shipping, called the Downs. There is an ancient castle east of the town.

Hythe is now of little consequence, the harbour being shut up with sands; and of five churches, which this town once possessed, one only remains.

Rumney, or Romney, is the place where the two great meetings of the Cinque Ports are held. The town subsists chiefly by grazing cattle in Rumney marsh. In this marsh large trees have been often discovered as black as ebony.

Sandwich was once walled round, and part of the wall remains; it has three churches and a quay and custom-house; but the harbour can only receive small vessels. It has a trade in malt, and some small shipping belonging to it. Near to Sandwich is

is Deal, the place where all foreign ships bound to and from London call to take or leave a pilot. This town has a castle; the castles of Walmer and Sandown are not far off.

Maidstone is populous, has one of the county jails, and being near the centre of the county, the assizes are held here, and elections for knights of the shire are held on a heath near it. This town has only one parish, of which the Archbishop of Canterbury is rector; but has two churches, and a stone bridge over the Medway. Its chief trade is in thread and hops. This town and the adjacent country supply London with oxen, timber, wheat, hops, apples, and a great quantity of cherries.

Queenborough is a poor place; the inhabitants subsist only by fishing.

The market-towns are Ashford, Bromley, Cranbrook, Crayford, Cray (St. Mary's), Dartford, Eltham, Feversham, Folkestone, Goudhurst, Gravesend, Greenwich, Lenham, Lydd, Malling, Milton, Seven Oak, Tenterden, Westerham, Woolwich, Wrotham, and Wye.

Although no borough or market-town, we shall first notice Chatham, which is indeed a suburb to Rochester, but is one of the stations for the royal navy. It is a large populous town, and has a fine establishment of a navy yard, where a number of ships are built and repaired.

Cranbrook is the place where the first woollen manufactory in the kingdom was erected by some Flemings, encouraged by Edward III.; but this manufacture no longer exists.

Dartford has a good market for corn, and is a great thoroughfare.

Feversham is a member of the Cinque Port of Dover, a populous town, and has a considerable trade to London in fruit and oysters. Folkestone is

is another member of the Cinque Port of Dover, has a small harbour, and a great number of fishing-boats, which in the season fish for herrings on the coasts of Suffolk and Norfolk.

Gravesend is situated on the Thames. Here all outward-bound ships from London clear out, and homeward-bound receive the custom-house officers on board. This town, and a small town near, called Milton, were incorporated by Queen Elizabeth.

Greenwich is about six miles from London, a populous town on the Thames; was once a royal palace, and has still a royal park; but the site of the former is now covered by a most beautiful building, employed as an hospital for decayed seamen, where upwards of 2000 of them are maintained. Near to Greenwich is the town of Deptford, which has a royal dock-yard, and an establishment commonly called the Trinity House, connected with the Trinity House of London.

Milton, called also Melton and Meddleton, celebrated for its oysters, is a port for small craft.

Tenterden is a member of the Cinque Port of Rye.

Tunbridge is noted for a peculiar kind of ware; it has one church and a free-school. About five miles from the town are Tunbridge Wells, the water of which is a chalybeat, said to be of great efficacy in some cases; here is a chapel, and a charity-school, supported chiefly by the company who come to drink the waters.

Woolwich is rendered considerable by its dock-yard, and the warren, or park for the artillery of the kingdom, and for its royal military academy.

The other market-towns are of little note.

It has been suggested by some writers, that Kent was once joined to France by an isthmus of land reaching

reaching from Dover to Calais, which has been since washed away. This county was most probably the first part of England peopled from the continent, and was inhabited by the Belgæ, the same nation who inhabited the opposite shores of Gaul. Under the heptarchy, Kent formed a kingdom of itself, which was the first established by the Saxons.

This county is also said to have been the first that was converted to Christianity. On the Conquest the inhabitants retained, by capitulation with the Conqueror, some privileges, particularly the tenure called gavel-kind, by virtue of which every man possessed of lands is a freeholder, and the heirs male share the inheritance, with various other regulations.

The Cinque Ports possess many privileges; as freedom from toll; power to oblige all who live in their jurisdiction to plead in their courts, power to punish offenders, &c. The services they were to perform in return for these privileges were, to fit out fifty-seven ships manned with twenty-one seamen each, and to maintain them fifteen days at their own charge.

Few counties abound more in antiquities than this. At Canterbury, Rochester, Maidstone, Dover, Richborough, and other parts, the antiquary finds full employment in inspecting the remains of the camps, tumuli, and castles built by the ancient inhabitants, or invaders.

The weald of Kent was formerly covered with woods; but has now many small towns and villages, but is not so well cultivated, or so populous, as the other parts of the county. Romney marsh is an extensive tract of rich lands, originally embanked from the sea by a strong wall well secured by timber and stakes. The Isle of Thanet was originally

ginally thin poor land, but the sea afforded a great supply of excellent manure, and Thanet is now celebrated for its fertility.

The hop-grounds of this county are very considerable; those between Sandwich and Canterbury produce the finest hops; but the chief quantity is produced in the grounds between Canterbury and Maidstone.

Very many of the nobility have chosen Kent for their residence, and it abounds in fine seats and parks, as Aylesford, Bedgebury, Beverley, Boughton, Chepstead, Chilham, Cobham, Coomb Bank, Dean Park, Eastwell, Ford Park, Greenwich, Gunstone, Halstead, Hayes, King's Gate, Knowle, Ley, Leeds Abbey, Linton, the Mote, Ollanteigh, Otterden, Penshurst, Waldershare, and Walmer, the seat of the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports.

CHAP. XX.—*Lancashire, or County of Lancaster.*

The boundaries of this county are, Westmoreland on the north; Cheshire on the south; Yorkshire on the east; and the Irish sea and Cumberland on the west. It is fifty-seven miles long, and thirty-two broad.

Lancashire is watered by the Mersey, the Ribble, the Were, and the Lon or Lun. The Mersey rises in the mountains of Derbyshire, runs southwest, dividing that county from Lancashire, and receiving several other rivers, then separates this county from Cheshire, passing Warrington, and runs into the sea at Liverpool. This river, by means of a canal, is joined with the Humber. The Ribble rises in Yorkshire, enters Lancashire at Clithero, and crossing it runs into the Irish sea near Preston. The Were is formed by several small streams, and running westward falls into the Irish sea about twelve miles north of the Ribble.

The

The Lon rises near Kirkby Lonsdale in Westmoreland, and passes the town of Lancaster, near which it falls into the Irish sea.

Lancashire has also several lakes, or meers.

The air of this county is healthy, except in some parts near the sea, or in the neighbourhood of some moist places called mosses, where it is damp and unwholesome.

The soil yields wheat, barley, and oats, but not sufficient for its own consumption; but this may arise from the great population of the county: it has the finest potatoes in England. The pasture is excellent, and the cows and oxen grow to a large size. In this county is great plenty of lead, copper, and iron ore; also antimony, some black lead, lapis calaminaris, and stones for building. The peculiar coal called cannel coal is found here; also alum, brimstone, and green vitriol. The mosses, when drained, will grow corn, and yield good fuel and manure. The adjoining sea and rivers supply plenty of fish.

No county has increased so much in manufactures as Lancashire, particularly in cotton goods: they have also a considerable one in woollen.

The county has six hundreds, six boroughs, and twenty-one market-towns; it lies in the diocese of Chester, and contains only about forty parishes, which are very large. Edward III. made it a county palatine, and it has both a chancery and dutchy chamber, the revenues of which afford many lucrative places.

The borough-towns are Clithero, Lancaster, Liverpool, Newton, Preston, and Wigan.

Clithero is an ancient borough by prescription.

Lancaster, 239 miles distant from London, is the county town, and a place of considerable trade. It is governed by a mayor, aldermen, &c. King

John granted the burgesses the same liberties he had granted to the city of Bristol.

Liverpool was incorporated by King John, and has charters from succeeding monarchs. It has long been a large town, but has of late increased in trade and population so much, as to be reckoned almost equal to Bristol. The buildings are daily augmenting, ships of any burden may ride before the town, and they have a fine wet dock to unload them. The Mersey, which at full sea is here two miles over, is navigable as high as Warrington. The town of Liverpool is well supplied with water from springs a few miles off.

Newton is a borough by prescription.

Preston was first incorporated by Henry II. is the station for the officers of the chancery of the county palatine, is a neat pretty town, and has a very considerable market.

Wigan is a well-built town, made a corporation by Henry I. It has a stately church, is neatly built, and has manufactories for rugs, blankets, and bedding. The pits of coal and iron near to the town afford also great employment for braziers, pewterers, &c.

The other market-towns are Blackburn, Bolton, Burnley, Bury, Cartmel, Chorley, Colne, Dalton, Eccleston, Garstang, Haslingden, Hawkshead, Hornby, Kirkham, Manchester, Ormskirk, Poulton, Prescot, Rochdale, Ulverstone, and Warrington.

Bolton is remarkable for its mineral water, and its manufactory of fustian. Bury has a considerable trade in fustians, half-thicks, and kerseys.

Cartmel has a small harbour for boats, a church built in form of a cathedral, and a good market.

Hawkshead stands on the west of Winander Meer, and has a good market for woollens.

Manchester

Manchester is a very ancient place, mentioned by Antoninus under the name of Mancunium; it stands near the conflux of the rivers Irk and Irwell, at three miles from the Mersey. It is by far the largest town in England, that is only a mere market-town, except Birmingham, and is more populous than most of the cities of England, owing to its considerable manufactures, particularly of cotton cloths. It has an exchange, two parish-churches, a college, hospital, and free-school. To supply this place with coals, the Duke of Bridgwater cut his canal from Worsley, the second of those highly useful works which was constructed in England: the Sankey canal, which runs also through this county, was the first.

Warrington is large, rich, and populous; has considerable manufactories of woollen and sail cloths, and an extensive market for provisions and malt.

This county, in the time of the Britons and Romans, was inhabited by the Brigantes, and, under the heptarchy, was part of the kingdom of Northumberland.

The ridges of mountains which separate this county from Yorkshire, and which run through Cheshire, Derbyshire, &c. defend Lancashire from the cold easterly winds; and although much rain falls in these districts, they are not unhealthy. Lancashire has many natural advantages for manufactures, as its great plenty of coal and water; to which may be added the facility of communication by canals; all which together have rendered it one of the most populous and manufacturing spots in the kingdom.

Lancashire does not so much abound in noblemen and gentlemen's seats as the more southern counties, yet it has some good ones: Adlington,

Ashton,

Ashton, Chedderton, Conished, Eton, Haigh Hall, Holker, Hutton, Kirby Hall, Knowsley, Newton, Standish, Trafford, Townly Hall, and Wrightsington.

CHAP. XXI.—*Leicestershire.*

Bounded by Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire on the north; Northamptonshire on the south; Staffordshire and Warwickshire on the west; Lincolnshire and Rutlandshire on the east: is in length about thirty-five miles, and breadth about twenty-five; and is reckoned to contain about 560,000 acres of land.

The principal rivers are the Welland and the Soar. The former rises near Harborough, divides Leicestershire from Northamptonshire, and crossing Rutlandshire and Lincolnshire, runs into a bay on the German ocean, called the Wash. The Soar rises near Hinkley and Lutterworth, passes Leicester, and falls into the Trent; it is in its course joined by the Wreke. The Avon for a short space divides this county and Northamptonshire.

The air of this county is sweet and healthy in all parts, the soil in general good, except on the borders of Lincolnshire. The cattle are excellent, and the wool much esteemed.

Agriculture is the chief business of the county, and its principal manufacture stockings.

Leicestershire has six hundreds, one borough, and eleven market-towns; lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Lincoln, and has about 200 parishes.

Leicester is distant ninety-seven miles from London, stands on the river Soar, is a very ancient town, and was chartered by King John, and its freemen are toll-free in all the markets in England. Under the Saxons it was the capital of the Mercian kingdom, and at that time the see of a bishop. It has six parishes, and some good hospitals.

pitals. The inhabitants carry on a very considerable manufactory of stockings, and the market is one of the greatest in England for corn and cattle. It is the county town, the best built in the shire, and sends two members to parliament.

The other market-towns are Ashby de la Zouch, Billesden, Bosworth, Hallaton, Harborough, Hinkley, Leicester, Loughborough, Lutterworth, Melton-Mowbray, Mountsorrel, and Waltham.

Ashby de la Zouch is famous for its fair of horses of the largest and best breed in England: Harborough has also a considerable fair for horses and colts. The other market-towns are of little note.

Leicestershire was part of the district of the Coritani, and afterwards of the Saxon kingdom of Mercia. The pretorian highway, called Watling Street, ran between this county and Warwickshire, and was sometime since plainly to be seen. In this county are many Roman antiquities, and some old English encampments. In a moor near Bosworth the famous battle was fought between Richard III. and Henry Earl of Richmond, which gave the crown to the latter, who reigned under the title of Henry VII.

An excellent establishment exists in this county which we wish were to be followed by others. A few miles from Leicester, a noble family have for many years let small parcels of land, from four acres to twenty, to cottagers, at a rate of about one fifth less than the same kind is let to farmers. These cottagers are enabled to keep three or four cows for the dairy, and some lambs, pigs, &c.; by these means many families live well, the men working as labourers, and the management of the stock being left to the families. In this place the poor's rate, from the above judicious management,

is trifling, and the loss in the end is little if any to the landlord.

There are some good seats in this county; among them are, Alton Grange, Beaumont Leys, Belvoir Castle, Broadgate, Donington, Frith Hall, Gopsal, Groby, Stanford Hall, Stanton-Harold, and Stapleford.

CHAP. XXII.—*Lincolnshire.*

Lincolnshire is washed on the east by the German ocean; bounded on the west by Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire; on the south by Northamptonshire and Cambridgeshire; and north by Yorkshire, from whence it is separated by the Humber. It is in length about seventy-five, and in breadth about forty-five miles: the quantity of acres it contains is estimated at about 1,900,000.

The rivers are the Welland, Witham, Trent, Dun, and Ankam. The Welland rises in Northamptonshire, parts that county and Lincoln, and runs into the Wash. The Witham rises near Grantham, passes Lincoln, and runs into the German ocean near Boston. The Trent rises in Staffordshire, parts this county from Nottinghamshire, and falls into the Humber. The Ankam runs into the Humber.

The air in the middle and western parts of the county is healthy; but on the coast, and in the fenny and marshy parts, it is not so good. It has, however, by draining been much mended of late. The soil is rich, producing good corn and pasture. The county abounds in game and wild fowl.

Lincolnshire is first divided into three parts, called provinces, viz. Holland, comprehending the south-east; Kesteven, the southern; and Lindsey, the northern: and those again are subdivided into wa-

pentakes

pentakes or hundreds, of which the whole county contains thirty. It has one city, four borough-towns, Stamford, Grantham, Boston, and Grimsby, and twenty-seven market-towns.

Lincoln was a city of the ancient Britons, called Lincoit, is now a bishop's see, and a county in itself, and has a jurisdiction for twenty miles round, a privilege which no other city in England enjoys. It stands on a hill, the foot of which is washed by the river Witham, over which it has three bridges, and has fourteen parish-churches. In the time of the Normans it was one of the most populous cities in England. The cathedral is a fine Gothic building, one of the largest in England. The buildings of the city are many of them old, although lately some good modern houses have been erected. Here is an old ruined castle built by William I. in the centre of which a handsome structure for the assizes has been built.

Boston is an ancient and flourishing town and port, first incorporated by Henry VIII.: it stands on the river Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln. Its church is esteemed the largest parochial church without cross ailes in the world, and serves as a guide to mariners sailing on the coast. The harbour is commodious, and the trade of the town, both foreign and domestic, very considerable. An annual fair is held here for cattle, which lasts nine days, and is called a mart.

Grantham is a rich, populous town, has a fine church, and some other public buildings.

Grimsby is supposed to be the oldest corporation in England; it was formerly a place of great trade, until its harbour was choked up. It has still a commerce in coals and salt.

Stamford stands on the river Welland, and is one of the most considerable towns of the county; it

was first chartered by Edward VI. and the inhabitants have great privileges. It is a large and populous town, has seven parish-churches, a fine town-hall, and a considerable trade in malt, coal, and freestone.

The other market-towns are, Alford, Barton, Binbroke, Bourn, Bollingbroke, Burgh, Burton, Caistor, Corby, Crowland, Deeping, Folkingham, Gainsborough, Glandford, Holbeach, Horncastle, Kirton, Louth, Rasen (Market), Saltfleet, Sleaford, Spalding, Spilsby, Stanton, Tattershall, and Wainfleet.

Crowland is well inhabited; the streets are three, separated by watercourses, planted on each side with willows. It has a church formerly belonging to a celebrated abbey of the same name.

Gainsborough stands on the Trent, is a well-built town, and one of the most flourishing in the county. The trade is considerable.

Sleaford is a populous town, and has a handsome church and free-school.

Spalding is a populous town, although badly situated; it has a small port, and many small vessels belonging to it.

This county formerly made part of the territory of the Coritani, and under the heptarchy formed part of the kingdom of Mercia. There are many Roman antiquities in this county; Stamford, Lincoln, Horncastle, being all ancient towns, afford them.

In the fens near Crowland many ducks, mallard, teals, widgeons, and other wild fowl, are taken in decoys in the following manner: the inhabitants keep decoy-ducks, who are bred so tame that they feed by hand; these ducks take flight from time to time, and return with numerous flocks of fowl, which they conduct to the several ponds to which they

they belong. The sides of the ponds are shaded with trees placed close together; the ponds are larger at one end than the other. When a flock arrives, they are fed by the inhabitants by throwing corn into the water; meantime a net is spread at the broad end of the pond, and the mouth kept open by the branches of the tree: they are by the corn drawn nearer to the nets; when sufficiently advanced, a dog is sent in, on which the birds endeavour to take flight, and are caught in the net.

The chief seats are Aswarby, Barkston, Bloxholm, Burton, Burwell, Calverthorpe, Doddington, Glantworth, Grimsthorpe, Gunby, Haverholm, Irnham, Kettlethorpe, Langham, Ormesby, Panton, Revesby, Scrivelsby, Uffington, and Well.

CHAP. XXIII.—*City of London.*

As this city is a county in itself, the seat of government and of justice, the principal trading city of England, and the capital of the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, and, taken it every point of view, may be deemed the first city in the world, it undoubtedly deserves a particular description, indeed a much more extensive one than our limits will allow. It may be necessary to observe, that the city of London, properly so called, its liberties, the city of Westminster, the borough of Southwark, and their suburbs, are all now designated by the general name of London, and form one mass of buildings, in length full seven miles, and in the extreme breadth three.

London was supposed to have been founded about the year of our Lord 49 by the Romans, and under them was a considerable place, and called Augusta. Under the Saxons it was the capital of the East Anglian kingdom, and has generally,

 since

since the Conquest, been the residence of the kings of England.

For situation few places exceed London; it stands on a gravelly soil, which conduces much to the health of its inhabitants. The river Thames is navigable up to London bridge for ships of considerable burden. The country round is cultivated in the highest manner, so as to be justly and emphatically called the garden of England; every eligible spot in the neighbourhood is ornamented with gentlemen's seats and well-built houses, and the roads which lead to and from it are the finest imaginable. It is also better lighted and supplied with water, perhaps, than any other city in the world.

Many of the kings of England have granted charters to London: it has them from William the Conqueror, from Henry I. Stephen, Henry II. Edward III. and Richard II. By that of King Stephen they are allowed to choose their own sheriff; under Henry II. their chief magistrate took the title of Lord Mayor; and under Edward I. the city was divided into wards, each under the government of its own alderman, and had a common council. Edward III. granted the mayor power to try causes, and also jurisdiction over the borough of Southwark. The mayor is also conservator of the river Thames from Staines to the sea.

In the reign of Elizabeth, the buildings of London did not extend beyond St. Catharine's to the east, and Temple Bar to the west; and the sides of the Strand were then garden-grounds belonging to some of the nobility, except a house here and there. The junction of the two cities of London and Westminster has, therefore, taken place since that time.

The government of London is in the mayor, a court

court of aldermen, and a court of common council: the wards are twenty-six, each governed by its alderman, and twenty-five of those have a common council. The mayor and court of aldermen have the executive, and those officers in common council have the legislative power of the city. The lord mayor is elected from among the aldermen by the livery of London, who return two, of which the court of aldermen selects one. The aldermen are elected by the inhabitants of the wards who are free of the city. The sheriffs, chamberlain, and some other inferior officers, are elected by the livery in common hall. Every freeman must belong to some of the city companies, and from these the liverymen are selected. The sheriff of London is, by royal charter, also sheriff of the county of Middlesex.

We must notice, that in the county there are two liberties, which are St. Martin's le Grand and the liberty of the Rolls; both of which are situated in the city of London, but exempt, in some respects, from its jurisdiction.

The city of Westminster is governed by a high steward, who is chosen for life by the dean and chapter of the collegiate church of the city, which is dedicated to St. Peter, and is called the Abbey church. The steward has a deputy, whom he nominates. There is also a high bailiff, elected likewise by the dean and chapter; he has the power of sheriff, and returns the members for the city of Westminster.

The dean and chapter of Westminster have not only an ecclesiastical, but in many respects a civil jurisdiction within the liberties of Westminster, St. Martin's le Grand, in the city of London, and some towns in Essex, which are exempt from the jurisdiction

jurisdiction both of the Bishop of London and Archbishop of Canterbury.

The borough of Southwark is on the Surry side, connected by a bridge; it is a city ward governed by an alderman, and a high bailiff chosen by the city of London.

The principal public buildings within the city are the Mansion-house, Guildhall, the Bank of England, the East-India-house, the South-Sea-house, the Royal Exchange, the Custom and Excise offices, the noble cathedral of St. Paul, the work of Sir Christopher Wren, and ninety churches, some of them of good architecture, besides the halls of the city companies, several of them good, and the College of Physicians. The jail of Newgate, and the new Compters for the confinement of debtors, are substantial modern buildings. The two Temples, the inn of the Sergeants, Furnival's inn, and the Trinity-house, are situated in the city. London has also two bridges over the Thames, and Westminster one.

London is a bishop's see, the diocese of which extends over Middlesex, Essex, and part of Hertfordshire. Some few parishes are, however, exempt from his jurisdiction, being what are called peculiars of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The parishes within the walls are ninety-seven, in the liberties seventeen. The tower of London joins the city jurisdiction.

To the eastward and northward of the city are the suburbs, in which the chief buildings are the churches, some of them handsome. The government of these parts is in the county magistrates.

In Westminster are a profusion of buildings worthy of attention. The first is the Abbey church of St. Peter, a fine Gothic building, once an abbey, then

situated

situated in a mean and unhealthy spot, but which by degrees has arisen to its present state of opulence and grandeur. The Abbey was supposed to have been founded in the beginning of the seventh century, and the city around it has arisen by slow degrees chiefly from the circumstances of the kings fixing their residence there. It has, therefore, the palace of St. James, a large building, but in no other respect answerable to the dignity of its monarch. Here are also the palaces of the Queen, and of the Prince of Wales called Carleton-house, and the remains of the old palace of Whitehall.

At Westminster also are the Houses of Lords and Commons, the noble hall built by William Rufus, where the courts of justice are held, called Westminster hall, the Admiralty office, Treasury, Horse Guards, the King's mews, four theatres, two in the Haymarket, one in Drury Lane, and one in Covent Garden; seven churches, and that noble pile of buildings called Somerset Place, where the public offices are held; many of which buildings are worth inspection, as are several of the houses of the nobility and gentry.

London is situated in fifty-one degrees thirty minutes north latitude. From the observatory at Greenwich, near to London, the British geographers now compute their longitude.

Chap. XXIV.—*Middlesex*

Is bounded by Hertfordshire on the north; by the river Thames on the south, which separates the county from Surry; west by the river Coln, which divides it from Buckinghamshire; and east by the Lea, which parts this county and Essex: it is twenty-four miles long, and about eighteen broad.

Middlesex is watered by the Thames, Coln, Lea, and New River; all of them have been already

ready mentioned. It has a fine gravelly soil, and is a healthy county: the land produces corn; but the vicinity of the cities of Westminster and London causes this county to abound in garden-ground, and here the art of gardening is brought to much greater perfection than in any other county. Manufactures of all kinds are carried on in Middlesex, and all in the highest perfection. We must, however, lament, that in the vicinity of London we find so much barren land.

The county is divided into six hundreds and three liberties or divisions; it contains two cities and five market-towns, lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of London, and, exclusive of those of the cities of London and Westminster, has seventy-three parishes.

The market-towns of Middlesex are, Brentford, Edgeware, Enfield, Staines, and Uxbridge.

Brentford has a considerable trade in corn; it is divided into the new and old towns; and near to them is a place called the Butts, where the elections for knights of the shire for the county are held.

Enfield is a pleasant town, and has many seats of gentlemen and rich citizens in the neighbourhood.

Staines is a populous town, with several good inns, and a bridge over the Thames.

Uxbridge has a considerable trade to London in meal.

Middlesex and Essex formed the kingdom of the Trinobantes, and were afterwards the dominions of the East Saxon kings.

Although this county is, in point of extent, one of the smallest in England, yet it is certainly the most populous with respect to its size.

We have already mentioned the great quantity of garden-ground in this county, and one circumstance that will alone serve to evince the great population

lation of the county and metropolis, is the number of cows kept to supply these places with milk. In Middlesex they are supposed to amount to 7000 and upwards; in the adjoining counties to upwards of 3000: an estimate has been made of the quantity and value of the milk which these animals yield, and it is said to amount to 24,820,000 quarts in a year, the value of which, when sold to the consumer, is not less than 310,000*l.* expended annually in this one article.

The roads of this county are excellent, and adorned by innumerable villas of the gentry, rich merchants, and citizens. Besides which, there are many noble seats of superior architecture, and several of them encompassed by fine parks: among them are, Bruce Castle, Bush Hill, Caenwood, Cannons, Chiswick, Derham Park, Enfield Park, Fulham Palace, Grove House, Hanwell, Holland House, Kempton, Littleton, Marble Hall, Osterly, Sion, Twickenham, and Wrotham, besides the royal palaces of Kensington, Hampton Court, and Bushy.

CHAP. XXV.—*Monmouthshire,*

Bounded north by Herefordshire and Brecknockshire; east by Gloucestershire; south by the river Severn and the Bristol channel; and west by Wales; is twenty-nine miles long, and about twenty broad.

Monmouthshire is watered by the Severn, Wye, Monow, Rumney, and Usk. The two former have been already mentioned. The Monow rises in Brecknockshire, and falls into the Wye; the Rumney, in the same shire, and dividing this county from Glamorganshire, falls into the Bristol channel. The Usk rises also in the same county, divides Moumouthshire into equal parts, and falls likewise into the Bristol channel below Newport.

Monmouth is a healthy and fruitful county, the eastern part woody, the western mountainous; the hills feed many cattle and sheep; the vallies produce plenty of hay and corn.

This county is divided into six hundreds, has one borough, and six market-towns, lies in the diocese of Landaff, and has 127 parishes.

The borough and county town of Monmouth is 132 miles distant from London, situated upon the Monow, or Mynow, near its confluence with the Wye. It has been considerable ever since the Conquest, has two churches, three bridges over the Monow, the Wye, and a small stream called the Trothy; is a handsome town, has some trade by means of the Severn with Bristol, and sends one member to parliament.

The other market-towns are, Abergavenny, Caerleon, Chepstow, Newport, Pontypool, and Usk.

Abergavenny is a large, populous, and flourishing town on the Usk; is a great thoroughfare to and from Wales and the western counties, and has a considerable trade in flannels, which are brought hither from the manufacturers to sell.

Caerleon was celebrated in the time of the Britons, who had a university here, and was considerable under the Romans; it is, however, now of little note.

Chepstow stands near the mouth of the Wye, is large and well built, and is the port for all the towns situated on the Wye. It was formerly a place of considerable consequence, and had a castle.

Newport has a good haven, and Pontypool is remarkable for its ware, and has some iron mills.

Monmouthshire, when the Romans landed, was part of the territory of the Silures. It was considered as part of Wales, and by the natives called Gwent, until the reign of Charles II. when it

was

was taken into the English circuits, and has since been deemed an English county.

Monmouthshire, although small, has some fine seats, as Clytha, Llandillo, Piercefield, Tredegar, Troy House, Usk Castle, &c.

Chap. XXVI.—*Norfolk*

Has the German ocean on the east and north; Cambridgeshire on the west; and Suffolk on the south; is in length fifty-seven miles, and in breadth thirty-five. The number of acres near 110,000.

The chief rivers of Norfolk are the greater and lesser Ouse, the Yare, and the Waveney. The greater Ouse rises in Northamptonshire, crosses Buckingham, Bedford, and part of Cambridge shires, and parting that county from Norfolk, runs into the Wash at Lynn. The smaller Ouse rises in Suffolk, separates that county from Norfolk, and falls into the greater Ouse above Downham. The Yare rises in this county, passes Norwich, and reaches the sea at Yarmouth. The Waveney rises in Suffolk, passes Bungay and Beccles, forms likewise a line of division of that county and Norfolk, and falls into the Yare.

Near the sea-coast the air of this county is not salutary, but in the inland very healthy. The soil is extremely various. The natural productions are corn, cattle, wool, honey, saffron, and alum. The chief manufactures are worsteds, woollens, and silk.

It is divided into thirty-one hundreds, has one city, four borough-towns, and twenty-eight market-towns. It lies in the diocese of Norwich, and has no less than 660 parishes, being the largest number, considering the size of the county, of any in England.

Norwich is an ancient city, about 110 miles from

from London, was incorporated and made a county of itself by Henry IV.; it stands on the side of a hill, and is esteemed two miles in length and one in breadth; it is populous, and the buildings, both public and private, neat and beautiful. It was formerly surrounded by a wall, some of which still remains. There are no less than thirty-six parish-churches in the city, besides the cathedral, which is a venerable structure, founded in 1096 by bishop Herbert. Norwich has a fine town-hall, a castle, where the assizes and quarter sessions are held, a number of charity-schools and hospitals, and six bridges over the river Yare. Here is an extensive manufactory of stuffs, and some stockings are made. The markets are considerable, and abundantly supplied.

The borough-towns are Lynn Regis, Yarmouth, Thetford, and Castle Rising.

Castle Rising is a borough by prescription, and has formerly been considerable.

Lynn Regis, or King's Lynn, is also a borough by prescription. King John endowed it with large privileges, which have been confirmed and augmented by subsequent monarchs. It has two parish-churches, and by means of the Ouse has a good port and considerable trade, both with foreign parts and with the inland towns. From hence a prodigious quantity of corn is shipped for the other parts of England, particularly the western parts.

Thetford has been a place of importance; as early as 672 a synod was held there, and in the twelfth century it was a bishop's see, which was translated to Norwich. It has been incorporated by Elizabeth, is a large town, part of which stands in the county of Suffolk, and has three churches, one of which stands in Suffolk, and a considerable manufacture in woollen cloth.

Yarmouth

Yarmouth is said to have been formerly one of the Cinque Ports. This is the great station for vessels employed in the herring fishery, and the corporation appoints bailiffs to regulate the fair in that commodity. This town has sent members to parliament ever since the time of Edward I. and under Edward III. was of so much importance as to send forty-three ships with 1075 seamen to the siege of Calais. It has received charters from several of our monarchs. The corporation has very extensive privileges, having a court of record and admiralty. Yarmouth is a neat and compact town, the streets regularly built. It has two churches, and a very considerable foreign and inland trade. The roads for shipping are much frequented by ships bound to and from the north.

The market-towns are Aylesham, Attlebury, New Buckenham, Burnham, Caistor, Clay, East Dereham, Diss, Downham, Fakenham, Foulsham, Harleston, East Harling, Hickling, Hingham, Holt, Loddon, Methwold, Repeham, Setch, Snetsham, Swaffham, Walsham, Walsingham, Watton, Windham, and Worstead; of many of which there is little can be said.

Attlebury was anciently not only a city, but the chief town of the county, and had a palace and collegiate church.

Burnham has a good harbour, and considerable foreign trade.

Cromer is a large town, chiefly inhabited by fishermen. It had two churches, but one of them was carried away by the sea.

Norfolk was anciently inhabited by the Iceni, and was part of the East Anglian Saxon kingdom. The Roman way called Ermine Street crossed this county from Suffolk to Yarmouth. Few counties enjoy the benefit of water-carriage more than Norfolk;

folk; the sea washes more than half its circumference, in which are many good harbours, and the rivers are navigable a considerable way from the mouths.

The gentlemen of this county have lately employed themselves much in planting; and although their plantations are of no great standing, yet they are extremely promising.

The principal seats in this county are Barningham, Blickling, Buckenham, Dereham Abbey, Elmham, Felbrigg, Garboldisham, Gunton, Holkham, Kimberly, Langley, Melton, Rainham, Scottow, Shottisham, Wolterton, and Wroxham.

Chap. XXVII.—*Northamptonshire*

Borders north on Leicester, Rutland, and Lincoln shires; east on Bedford, Huntingdon, and Cambridge shires; west on Warwick and Oxford shires; and south on Buckingham and Oxford shires. It is fifty-five miles long, and about twenty in its extreme breadth.

This county, although inland, is well watered by the Nen, the Welland, and the Ouse. The Nen, Leam, and Charwell spring out of one hill near Daventry; the Nen passes Northampton, afterwards forms a boundary between Cambridge and Lincoln shires, and falls into the Wash. The Welland and Ouse have been already described; the former forms the north-western boundary of this county.

Northamptonshire is healthy, and possesses more seats of noblemen and gentlemen than any other county of the like extent. The soil is fruitful both in corn and pasture; the face of this county is level, and it has less waste land than any other county in England.

The

The manufactures are serges, flannels, shalloons, boots and shoes. Northamptonshire is divided into twenty hundreds, has one city, two boroughs, and nine market-towns. It lies in the diocese of Peterborough, and has 330 parishes.

The city is Peterborough is about seventy-eight miles from London, and founded as early as A. D. 655: it is the smallest city, and one of the poorest bishoprics in England. It stands on the Nen, and has jurisdiction over thirty-two towns and hamlets. The air on account of the fens is not esteemed healthy. The streets of the city are well built; the cathedral is a handsome Gothic building, but extremely old, the windows are finely stained with scripture histories. The city has only one church besides the cathedral, a trade in malt, and manufactures of woollens and stockings.

The borough of Brackley is very ancient.

Northampton is about sixty-five miles from London, and was of little note till the Conquest, but since that period some of our parliaments have been held there, and it has sent members ever since Edward I. It has several old charters, which were confirmed by Edward I. Northampton is a neat place, is the county town, has a good sessions-house, and one of the finest market-places in Europe. Here are four churches, a county jail, and two bridges over the Nen. The most considerable horse-market in England is held here; the manufactures of the town are shoes and stockings.

Higham Ferrers was made a borough by Philip and Mary, but sends only one member to parliament; it is a small, but clean and neat town.

The other market-towns are Daventry, Kettering, Oundle, Rockingham, Rothwell, Thrapston, Towcester, and Wellingborough.

Daventry,

Daventry, or Daintry, is only remarkable as a considerable thoroughfare.

Kettering stands on the Nen, is a handsome, populous town, and has a considerable manufacture of shalloons, tabbies, and serges.

Oundle is a neat town on the Nen, over which it has two bridges.

Towcester is noted as a thoroughfare, and has manufactures of lace and silk.

Wellingborough stands on the Nen, is large and populous, and has a considerable trade in corn, and a manufacture of lace.

This county was anciently inhabited by the Coritani, and formed part of the Saxon kingdom of Mercia. Two Roman roads crossed this county.

The chief seats are Abingdon, Althorpe, Ashby, Burleigh, Canon's Ashby, Castle Abbey, Dean, Drayton, Easton-Mauditt, Easton-Neston, Fawsley, Harlstone, Higham Park, Milton, Overton, Stoke, Upton, and Watford.

Chap. XXVIII.—*Northumberland*

Is bounded on the south by the county of Durham; on the north and west by Scotland; east by the German ocean; and touches a part of Cumberland on the south-west. This shire contains above 800,000 acres of land, and is the most northerly county of England.

Northumberland possesses, or is watered by, four fine rivers; the two Tynes, the Tweed, and the Coquet. The south Tyne rises in Cumberland, and joins the north Tyne at Hexham. The north Tyne rises near the borders of Scotland, and crossing this county passes Newcastle, and falls into the German ocean at Tynemouth. The Tweed rises in Scotland, forms the eastern boundary between England and Scotland, and joins the sea

near

near Berwick. The Coquet rises in Scotland, and crosses this county to the German sea near Warkworth.

The air of this county is mild, considering its northern situation, and snow does not lie long except on the hills. The soil near the sea forms some fine vales, and is well cultivated, but the western part has much heath, and is mountainous: on the whole, there is much sterility in this county. The rivers of this county afford plenty of fish, particularly salmon and trout. The lords of the manor have the property of the fishery, which they farm, and immense quantities of salmon are caught and exported. Northumberland abounds more with coal than any other county in England, and the quantity shipped for London and other parts is prodigious. Here are also lead-mines and good store of timber. The county has, however, few manufactures.

Northumberland is divided into wards, of which there are six; it has three boroughs and eight market-towns; it lies in the diocese of Durham, and has only forty-six parishes.

The boroughs are Berwick, Morpeth, and Newcastle.

Berwick is the most northerly town in England, being 342 miles from London, and formerly belonged to Scotland; but has been deemed an English borough ever since the time of Edward IV. It has several charters, was once strongly fortified, has still a castle, and is now deemed a military government. It is a large, well-built, populous place, with a fine church, has a considerable fishery for salmon, and a manufactory of stockings.

Morpeth is an ancient borough by prescription, is a town of considerable thoroughfare, and has one of the first markets in England for cattle.

Newcastle,

Newcastle, from its situation between the Picts' wall and the river Tyne called Newcastle *upon Tyne*, to distinguish it from Newcastle in Staffordshire. before the Norman Conquest was possessed by the Scots. It is a borough as ancient as Richard II. Next to York it is the handsomest and largest town in the north of England, is very populous, and encompassed by a wall. Here are a magnificent exchange, a handsome mansion-house, six churches, a prison, a noble custom-house, and fine quay with a stately bridge over the Tyne. Here is a considerable manufactory of hardware and wrought iron, and some woollen cloths are made; it has likewise many glass-houses and ship-yards. The trade of the town, especially in coals, is very great.

The other market-towns are Alnwick, Belford, Ellesdon, Haltwesel, Hexham, Learmouth, Rothbury, and Woller.

Hexham has been formerly a magnificent place, the chief of a track of land called Hexhamshire, once a bishop's see, and is still a peculiar of the Archbishop of York. The other towns are of little note.

Northumberland was, in the time of the Romans, inhabited by the Ottadini, thought to be a tribe of the Meatæ. Under the Saxons it formed part of the kingdom of Northumberland, but has been alternately possessed by the English and Scots.

In this county are very many seats; the chief are Alnwick, Belsay, Capheaton, Falloden, Gofforth, Howick, Lee Hall, New Hall, Ridley, Seaton-Delaval, &c.

CHAP. XXIX.—*Nottinghamshire*

Has Yorkshire on the north; Leicestershire on the south; Lincolnshire on the east; and Derby-

shire

shire on the west. It is in length from north to south forty-three miles, and in breadth from east to west twenty-four miles.

This county is watered by the Trent, Erwash, and Idle. The Trent rises in Staffordshire, divides Derbyshire from Leicestershire, passes through the whole length of this county, and enters Lincolnshire. The Erwash rises in Derbyshire, which it separates from this county. The Idle rises near Mansfield in this county, and falls into the Trent.

The air of Nottinghamshire is good. On the east the soil is very fruitful: this division is called the Clay, and is divided into north and south; the west side is woody and barren, called the Sand. In this part is Sherwood forest, to which belong a warden and several other officers. The western parts yield some coal, lead, marle, and plaster of Paris.

The principal manufactures are stockings, glass, and earthenware; this county is also famous for its ale. It is divided into eight hundreds, some of which are called wapentakes, has three boroughs, and six market-towns. It lies both in the diocese and province of York, and has 168 parishes.

The borough-towns are Newark, Nottingham, and Retford.

Newark stands on a branch of the Trent, where that river divides into two. It is supposed to have been a Roman town, was first incorporated by Edward VI. It is a considerable thoroughfare, has a noble market, and a good trade in corn, cattle, wool, &c.

Nottingham, the county town, 124 miles from London, stands on a small river called the Lind, near its conflux with the Trent, in a delightful situation, surrounded by a fine country. It is a borough by prescription, has three churches, a town-

town-hall, where the assizes for the county are held, and a county jail. Nottingham has a stately bridge over the Trent, and a stone bridge over the Lind. The trade of this town is considerable in manufactures of glass, earthenware, and stockings. Malt and ale are made here in perfection.

East Retford is a royal demesne, and has several privileges; the town is connected with West Retford by a bridge over the Idle. It is situated among plantations of hops, and in that commodity and barley it has a considerable trade.

The other market-towns are Bingham, Blith, Mansfield, Southwell, Tuxford, and Worksop.

Mansfield is a well-built town, and has a good market.

Southwell stands on a small stream called the Gaul, which falls into the Trent about two miles from the town. It has a church called the minster, which is both parochial and collegiate, and supposed to have been founded by Paulinus in 630. The chapter has a peculiar jurisdiction over twenty-eight parishes. Here two annual synods are held. The civil government here is distinct from that of the county, and is called the Stoke of Southwell, which has twenty towns subject to its jurisdiction.

Tuxford is of little note but as a thoroughfare.

Worksop is remarkable for its great quantities of liquorice and malt.

Nottingham was part of the territories of the Coritani, and afterwards of the Saxon kingdom of Mercia. The ancient forest of Sherwood is still under the jurisdiction of the justice in eyre north of Trent. It has a large establishment.

The chief seats are Averham Park, Clifton, Clumber, East Stoke, Grove, Haughton, Langar, Newstead, Nottingham Castle, Rufford, Shire-Oaks, Thoresby, Welbeck, and Worksop.

CHAP.

Chap. XXX.—*Oxfordshire*

Is bounded by Northamptonshire to the north-east; by Warwickshire to the north-west; by Buckinghamshire to the east; by Gloucestershire on the west; and by Berkshire on the south. It is forty-two miles long, and twenty-six broad, and contains about 450,000 acres of land.

This county is watered by the Thames, Charwell, Evenlode, Windrush, and Thame. The Thames has been already mentioned. The Charwell rises in Northamptonshire, and falls into the Thames near Oxford. The Evenlode rises in Worcestershire, and joins the Thames likewise near Oxford. The Windrush rises in Gloucestershire, and runs through this county to the Thames west of Oxford. The Thame rises in Buckinghamshire, runs past a market-town of the same name, and enters the Thames near Wallingford.

The air is good, the soil dry and fertile. Oxfordshire affords great plenty of corn, and has rich meadows.

The county is divided into fourteen hundreds, has one city, two boroughs, and ten market-towns. It lies in the diocese of Oxford, and has about 280 parishes.

Oxford, fifty-eight miles from London, standing at the confluence of the rivers Thames and Charwell, is governed by a mayor, who at the coronation of the king officiates in the buttery. The magistrates are, however, all subjected to the chancellor and vice-chancellor of the University. The city is situated on the banks of the Thames in a beautiful plain, and in a good air. It is, including the University, one of the largest cities in England; the private buildings are neat, the public grand. Here are thirteen parishes; one of the churches,

churches, St. Mary's, is a fine, spacious, Gothic structure. Here also is a town-hall, where the assizes for the county are held, a stone bridge over the Charwell, and two over the river Thames, which is here navigable for barges. The chief trade of the city consists in sending malt to London.

The University of Oxford is one of the noblest in the world; it consists of twenty-five colleges and halls, and is a corporation governed by a chancellor, a high steward, a vice-chancellor, two proctors, a public orator, and other officers. The chancellor is chosen by the students in convocation, and is elected for life; the high steward is named by the chancellor, but must be approved by the University. The number of officers, fellows, and scholars maintained by the revenue of the University is about 1000, and the scholars who live at their own charge are estimated at about 2000. Four terms are kept every year for public lectures, exercises, and disputations. There are public schools in every college. Here are a fine library built in pursuance of the will of Dr. Radcliffe, called the Radcliffe library; a magnificent hall or theatre for the public meetings of the University, and a fine museum called the Ashmolean; also the Clarendon printing-house, besides the various colleges, of which our limits will permit us only to give the names. There also belongs to the University a magnificent physic-garden.

The colleges are, University, Baliol, Merton, Exeter, Oriel, Queen's, New College, Lincoln, All Souls, Magdalen, Brazen Nose, Corpus Christi, Christ Church, Trinity, St. John Baptist, Jesus, Wadham, Pembroke, Worcester, and Hartford; and five halls, St. Edmund, St. Magdalen's, St. Alban's, St. Mary's, and New Inn Hall. The halls in Oxford are subordinate to some college.

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This university is said to have been founded by the great Alfred, but is supposed to have been a seminary before his time.

The church of Christ-Church college is the cathedral of the diocese; it is a venerable structure.

The borough-towns are Banbury and Woodstock.

Banbury was first made a borough by Queen Mary, confirmed by subsequent monarchs; it sends only one member to parliament, and was once noted for cakes and cheese.

Woodstock had formerly a royal palace; the honour and manor of the town of Woodstock was settled in the time of Queen Anne on the great Duke of Marlborough and his descendants, as a reward for his services, and particularly for his victory at Blenheim, the name since given to this princely seat.

The other market-towns are Bampton, Bicester, Burford, Chipping-Norton, Doddington, Henley, Islip, Thame, Watlington, and Witney.

Bampton has a very considerable trade in gloves, leather breeches, and stockings, brought hither from Witney.

Burford has a considerable market for sadlery.

Chipping-Norton was a town of trade in the time of the Saxons. It has a handsome church of a curious construction.

Henley upon Thames, called so from its situation, is said to be the oldest town in the county. The buildings are good; the chief inhabitants are maltsters, mealmen, and bargemen, who carry on a prodigious trade in malt and corn to London.

Thame is said to have been a town in the time of the Danes: it is now a large place.

Witney consists of a street of one mile long, is very populous, and has a considerable manufactory

factory for rugs and blankets, the makers of which are formed into a corporation, and have power to inspect the looms, and regulate the weaving business, for twenty miles rounds. Here are also manufactures for woollen cloth called duffels, and for hammocks and tilt-cloths for bargemen.

This county, during the time of the Romans, was inhabited by the Dobuni. The Anaclites mentioned by Cæsar, it is thought, were seated on the south side of the county. The Roman roads called the Ickenild Way and Akeman Street cross this county.

The seats are Aldersbury, Blandford, Bletchingdon, Blenheim, Bruern Abbey, Caversham, Charlbury, Crowsley, Ditchley, Gray's Court, Heythrup, Hanwell, Kirklington, Middleton, Newnham, Ricot, Shirburn, Tame, and Watlington, most of which are surrounded by fine parks.

CHAP. XXXI.—*Rutlandshire*

Has Lincolnshire on the north and north-east; Northamptonshire on the south and south-east; and Leicestershire on the west. It is the smallest county in England, being only fifteen miles long and ten broad.

Rutland is watered by the Welland before noticed, and by the Gwash or Wash, which rises near Okeham, and dividing the county into equal parts runs into the Welland near Stamford, in Lincolnshire.

The air of this county is good, the soil fruitful. It is not celebrated for any particular manufacture; has only five hundreds, two market-towns, and forty-eight parishes.

The market-towns are Okeham and Uppingham.

Okeham

Okeham is a pretty town, distant ninety miles from London, situated in a vale, called the Vale of Catmose; here the assizes are held, and other county business transacted: neither that nor Uppingham have any thing particular to notice.

Rutlandshire was part of the ancient residence of the Coritani, and afterwards a part of the Saxon kingdom of Mercia.

The seats in this county are few; Burleigh is the chief.

Chap. XXXII.—*Shropshire,*

Called also the county of Salop, is bounded north by Cheshire and Flintshire; south by Worcester, Hereford, and Radnor shires; east by Staffordshire; and west by Denbigh and Montgomery shires. It is fifty miles long, about forty broad, and contains near 900,000 acres of land.

The chief rivers are the Severn, the Teme, and the Colun. The Severn has been already noticed; it divides this county nearly into equal parts. The Teme rises in Radnorshire, separates Shropshire from the counties of Radnor, Hereford, and Worcester, and falls into the Severn near Worcester. The Colun rises near Bishop's Castle, and joins the Teme near Ludlow.

The air is pure, and the mountainous parts, which are north of the Severn, cold and piercing. The soil is various; the northern and eastern parts yield plenty of wheat and barley; the southern and western afford pasture for sheep and cattle. Along the banks of the Severn the meadows are rich. Shropshire has mines of copper, lead, iron, coals, with great quarries of stone and limestone.

Shropshire has a number of considerable manufactories. The county is divided into fourteen hundreds, has no city, five boroughs, and eight market-

market-towns. It lies in the province of Canterbury; the part south of the Severn is in the bishopric of Hereford, and the north part in that of Lichfield and Coventry, except Oswestry, and a few places near it, which are in the diocese of St. Asaph: the archdeacon of Shrewsbury is, however, archdeacon for the three parts. The county is divided into 170 parishes.

The borough-towns are Bishop's Castle, Bridgnorth, Ludlow, Shrewsbury, and Wenlock.

Bishop's Castle is celebrated for its market for cattle and other commodities, and is much frequented by the Welsh.

Bridgnorth is an ancient town, having been built by the widow of Ethelred, king of the Mercians, in 580, and has formerly been fortified. It has received charters from several of our kings, is large and populous, and has two parts, one on each side of the Severn, called the upper and lower towns, connected by a stone bridge; in the former are some stately houses. It is a place of considerable trade.

Ludlow was incorporated by Edward IV. and has a power of trying criminals distinct from the county. It stands on the north bank of the Teme, in a rich and fruitful country; has four wards and an old castle, once a palace of the Princes of Wales. Ludlow is a neat and flourishing town.

Shrewsbury, the county town, is about 165 miles from London; it was under the Saxons a town of considerable note, and is now one of the most flourishing in England: it was incorporated by Charles I. The corporation has a power to try causes within itself, and for all crimes except high treason. The town is walled round, the streets broad, and the houses well built; it has two bridges over the Severn, five churches, one of the

the largest schools in England, and a good town-house. The town is pleasant, and supplied with all sorts of provisions in great plenty, which makes it the resort and place of residence of many of the gentry of the county, and has a very considerable market for Welsh cottons, friezes, and flannels.

Wenlock is an ancient corporation; the place is only remarkable for a great quantity of limestone and tobacco-pipe clay in the neighbourhood.

The other market-towns are Church-Stretton, Cleobury, Drayton, Newport, Oswestry, Wellington, Wem, and Whitchurch.

Newport is a good town, has a grammar-school, and an English free-school.

Oswestry is a very ancient town, stands on the borders of Derbyshire, had formerly a considerable trade in Welsh flannels, but is now much decayed.

Whitchurch is a large and populous town.

The division of Shropshire lying north of the Severn, was anciently inhabited by the Cornavii, and the southern part by the Ordovices. Under the Saxons Shropshire formed part of the kingdom of Mercia. Being a frontier country between England and Wales, it was necessarily well fortified, having no less than thirty-two castles, besides fortified towns. That part of Shropshire nearest Wales, and the limits of both countries, were called the Marches, and governed by some of the nobility called Lords of the Marches. Watling Street, the ancient Roman way, crosses this county from Staffordshire to Herefordshire.

The chief seats are Adderly, Acton-Burnell, Candover, Chetwynd, Cleobury, Ellesmere, Harcott, Haughton, Oakley, Patshull, Tong, and Weston.

Chap. XXXIII.—*Somersetshire*

Is bounded by the Bristol channel and Gloucestershire on the north and west; by Devonshire on the south-west; by Dorsetshire on the south; and by Wiltshire on the east. Its length is sixty miles, and its breadth fifty.

The rivers are the Avon, the Bry, and the Pedred or Parret. The first, or West Avon, rises in Wiltshire, separates this county from Gloucestershire, and passing Bristol runs into the Bristol channel. The Bry rises near Selwood, and falls into the Bristol channel near Bridgwater. The Pedred, or Parret, rises near Crewkerne, and discharges itself into the Bry.

The air of this county is said to be the mildest in England, and in most places healthy. The soil is various, the eastern and western are stony, but yield good pasture for sheep; the lower grounds afford corn and grass in abundance, and a valley called Taunton Dean is so rich, as to produce corn, grass, and fruit, without manure. Much grain is shipped off from this county. Laver, of which the inhabitants make cakes for food, is found on the beach of the Bristol channel. Somersetshire has plenty and variety of cider; the oxen are larger and the grain of the flesh better than in Lincolnshire; the vallies breed sheep of the largest size, and the county has vast quantities of wild fowl, and is remarkably well supplied with fish.

The Mendip hills produce mines of lead, coal, copper, and lapis calaminaris.

This county has very considerable manufactures in fine cloths, kerseys, druggets, serges, shalloons, stockings, buttons, and linen; the produce by mines, tillage, grazing, dairies, &c. is remarkably great. It is large and populous, is divided into forty-

forty-two hundreds, has three cities, five boroughs, and twenty-six market-towns; lies in the diocese of Bath and Wells, and has 385 parishes.

The cities are Bath, Wells, and Bristol.

Bath, distant about 110 miles from London, took its name from some natural hot baths, for which this place has been long celebrated, even from the time of the Romans. It is a bishop's see, united with Wells, and has a charter from Queen Elizabeth; stands in a valley surrounded with hills in the form of an amphitheatre, and has three parish-churches besides the cathedral, which is small, but a noble structure. Here are five baths, called the King's, the Queen's, the Cross, the Hot, and the Lepers' baths. In the season for drinking these waters Bath is the resort of immense numbers of nobility, gentry, and foreigners; and the many conveniences this place possesses, and the cheapness of living, make it a desirable residence both for people of fashion and those of small fortune.

Bristol is reckoned the second city for commerce, wealth, and number of inhabitants in England. It was made a county of itself by Edward III.; is a bishop's see, and of so much consequence, that the tradesmen are incorporated into separate companies, and many of these companies have halls, as in London. By charter of Queen Elizabeth every man who marries the daughter of a citizen of Bristol becomes free of the city.

The city stands on both sides of the Avon; part of it is therefore in this county, and part in Gloucestershire: these two divisions are connected by a bridge over the river. The streets are narrow and irregular. The whole circumference of this city is seven miles. Here are a cathedral and eighteen parish-churches. In the former there is not any thing

thing worthy of note. The city has many charitable foundations, a guildhall, where the mayor and sheriffs are chosen, and hold their courts, and a fine corn-market built of freestone.

Bristol had, till of late, the most considerable foreign trade of any place in Britain, except London; but it is now supposed that Liverpool equals it as to commerce.

The city of Wells is 127 miles from London, was erected into a see as early as 905, and was made a free borough by Henry II. Queen Elizabeth raised it to the rank of a city. It is small, situated at the bottom of the Mendip hills: the houses are handsome, the streets broad. The cathedral is ancient, but much admired, and the bishop's palace is one of the handsomest in the kingdom. Little manufacture is carried on here. The poor employ themselves in making bone-lace, and weaving stockings.

The borough-towns are Bridgwater, Ilchester, Milbourne-Port, Minehead, and Taunton.

Bridgwater was made a free borough by King John, and a distinct county by Henry VIII. The revenues of the corporation are very great; the town is one of the most considerable in the county, has a stone bridge over the Parret, and carries on an extensive coasting trade, and some foreign trade to Portugal and Newfoundland.

Ilchester is an ancient borough; in the reign of Edward III. the assizes for the county were held there, and the knights of the shire chosen: the county courts are kept here, and the county jail. It is now much reduced from what it once was, and has only one church remaining of several which it formerly possessed.

Milbourne-Port was a borough at the time of the Conquest;

Conquest; it is a poor place, consisting of a number of scattered houses.

Minehead is an ancient borough, has a harbour on the Bristol channel, with a fine quay; the town is well built, and had a considerable trade with Ireland for wool, and Wales for coals. The merchants trade also to Virginia, the West Indies, and other parts.

The other market-towns are Axbridge, Bruton, Castle-Carey, Chard, Crewkerne, Croscomb, Dulverton, Dunster, Frome-Selwood, Glastonbury, Ilminster, Keynsham, Langport, Curry (North), Pensford, Petherton (South), Philip's-Norton, Shepton-Mallet, Somerton, Stowey, Watchet, Wellington, Wincaunton, Wivelscomb, Winton, and Yeovil.

Axbridge stands on the river Axe, and is a neat little town.

Bruton has a stone bridge over the Bye, and a good trade in serges, stockings, malt, &c.

Castle-Carey is noted for a spring of purging water impregnated with alum.

Chard was once a borough, and the assizes were formerly held there. It has now only a small woollen manufactory.

Dunster, situated on the Bristol channel, has a manufacture of serges.

Frome stands on a small river of the same name, is a large town, but the streets very irregular; it has only one church, but many places of worship for dissenters. It has a fine stone bridge over the river, and a very considerable manufacture of broad-cloth.

Glastonbury stands on the river Bry; before the dissolution of monasteries this was a town of great importance, and had a most magnificent abbey; it was at that time a royal borough, but lost its privi-

privileges, and was not incorporated again until the reign of Queen Anne. It has two churches, and a manufactory for stockings.

Ilminster has an extensive woollen manufactory.

Keynsham is a considerable thoroughfare, has a fine church, a stone bridge of fifteen arches over the Avon, another over the Chew, and a trade in malt.

Langport once sent members to parliament, but lost that privilege. It is situated on the Parret.

Shepton-Mallet is a large town, and has some considerable clothiers settled in it.

Taunton had a charter from Charles I. but lost it under Charles II. for refusing to renounce the solemn league and covenant; the same king, however, granted it a new charter. There is a peculiar custom in this town, that every pot-walloper, or person who boils a pot, shall have a vote. In consequence of this privilege, every lodger or inmate, previous to an election, boils a pot in the street, to prove his right to vote. The town is agreeably situated, and is one of the largest boroughs in the kingdom. It has two churches, and many congregations for dissenters, and a fine bridge over the Tone. Many thousand workmen are here employed in the weaving of woollens.

Watchet is a small port on the Bristol channel, which has a trade in coals. The inhabitants of this town burn small pebble-stones, which they find on the coast, into lime, which serves as manure, and is one of the most durable cements in water.

Wellington has a good manufactory in serges, druggets, and a pottery.

Wincaunton has a considerable market for corn, cheese, and cattle.

Yeovil

Yeovil has also a large market for the above commodities, and a manufactory of gloves.

Somersetshire was part of the extensive territories of the Belgæ, and constituted a portion of the West Saxon kingdom.

The number of gentlemen's seats in this county is very great; the chief are, Ashton, Berkeley, Bruton Abbey, Cleve, Coomsbury, Dunster, King's Weston, Prior Park, Redlynch, Stone-Easton, Sutton Court, &c.

Chap. XXXIV.—*Staffordshire*

Is bounded north-west by Cheshire; north-east by Derbyshire; south-east by Worcestershire and Warwickshire; and west by Shropshire: it is in length forty and in breadth twenty-four miles.

Staffordshire is watered by the Trent, the Dove, the Thame, or Tame, and the Sow. The Trent is esteemed the third river of England; it rises near Leek, and crossing this county, runs into Derbyshire. The Dove separates Derbyshire and Staffordshire; both have been before spoken of. The Thame rises near Wolverhampton, runs into Warwickshire, and re-enters this county near Tamworth, and soon after falls into the Trent. The Sow rises near Newcastle, and passing by Stafford, falls likewise into the Trent.

Staffordshire has a fine air, but in the mountainous parts it is cold. The land, where well cultivated, is excellent, and produces good crops, especially of a short and sweet grass good for the cattle; there is, however, much barren land, called Moorlands.

The county yields plenty of coal, ochre, tobacco-pipe and potter's clay, minerals, and stones of various kinds.

In this county they manufacture cloth, iron-ware, pottery, shoes, and hats. It is divided into five hundreds, has one city, three boroughs, and fifteen market-towns; lies in the diocese of Lichfield and Coventry, and has 150 parishes.

Lichfield is the city (distance 115 miles from London), the see of a bishop, united with Coventry; was incorporated by Edward VI. and is a county in itself, the jurisdiction extending ten or twelve miles round the city. It stands in a valley three miles south of the Trent, and is divided by a stream; the division on the south is called the City, that on the north is called the Close. The streets are well paved and clean, and have some good houses. There are a cathedral with a fine lofty steeple, and three parish-churches, with a free-school, and two hospitals.

The boroughs of this county are Newcastle, Stafford, and Tamworth.

Newcastle-under-Line, called so to distinguish it from the other Newcastle in Northumberland, was first incorporated by Henry I. The streets are broad, but the buildings low. It has only one church, and a good manufactory of hats. In its neighbourhood are several towns, called the Pottery, where potter's ware of all kinds is fabricated; and which place, in a short space, has risen from poverty to great opulence.

Stafford, the county town, is 141 miles from London; in Doomsday Book it is styled a city. The first incorporation that appears was by King John. By a statute of Queen Elizabeth the county assizes and quarter sessions are always to be kept there. It stands on the banks of the Sow; the streets are well paved, the houses well built, and covered with slate. It has two handsome churches,

a good

a good market-place, and a bridge over the river. The chief manufactures are cloth and shoes.

Tamworth is divided by the Tame, half of the town standing on the Staffordshire, and the other half on the Warwickshire side. Therefore it is a custom for each part to choose one representative. It was a town in the time of the Saxons, but not incorporated until Queen Elizabeth, has a church, and a considerable trade in narrow cloths and other manufactures.

The other market-towns are Betley, Brewood, Bromley (Abbot's), Burton-upon-Trent, Cheadle, Eccleshall, Leek, Longnor, Penkridge, Rudgley, Stone, Tutbury, Uttoxeter, Walsall, and Wolverhampton.

Burton-upon-Trent has a very fine bridge over that river of thirty-seven arches, and nearly a quarter of a mile long, has very considerable breweries for ale, which is sent down the Trent to Hull, and exported in large quantities.

Leek has a manufactory of buttons.

Uttoxeter, called also Utcheter, is a large, clean, and well-paved town; but the houses are mean. It has a good, and much-improved bridge over the Dove, and a very considerable market for cattle, sheep, swine, butter, cheese, corn, and indeed all sorts of provisions. In the neighbourhood are some very considerable iron-manufactories.

Walsall has many manufactories for spurs, bridle-bits, stirrups, and buckles.

Wolverhampton is a populous well-built town with a collegiate church. The manufactures of the town are chiefly locks and coarse iron goods.

Staffordshire formed part of the territories of the Cornavii, and under the Saxons was subject to the king of the Mercians.

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This county has many very fine seats, as Abbot's Bromley, Beaudesert, Blithfield, Chartley, Cotton, Drayton, Eccleshall, Fisherwick, Ingestrie, Lexley, Madley, Sandon, Shuckborough, Trentham, Wolseley, Weston, Wrottesley, and others of less note.

CHAP. XXXV.—*Suffolk*

Is bounded by the German ocean on the east; by Cambridgeshire on the west; by the river Stour, which divides it from Essex, on the south; and by the Ouse and Waveney, which divide it from Norfolk, on the north. It is forty-eight miles long, and twenty-four broad, and contains about 800,000 acres of land.

Suffolk is watered by the Lesser Ouse, the Waveney, the Stour, the Deben, the Orwell, the Ald, and the Blyth. The Ouse, Waveney, and Stour, have been before mentioned. The Deben rises near Mendlesham, passes Debenham, and falls into the German ocean near Woodbridge. The Orwell rises near the same town, and running parallel to the Deben passes by Ipswich, where it is navigable for great ships, and about ten miles below forms an estuary with the Stour, and both run into the German ocean. The Ald rises near Framlingham, passes Aldborough and Orford, and falls into the German ocean near Southwold.

In general this county enjoys a healthy air, and the soil is fruitful. Suffolk is noted for good butter and bad cheese. An immense quantity of turkeys are bred in this county and Norfolk. The chief manufactures are woollen and linen cloths.

The most general division of the county is into two parts, the western called the liberty of St. Edmund, the eastern called Gildable Land, each part furnishing a distinct grand jury to the county assize. It is also divided into twenty-two hundreds, and con-

tains seven boroughs and twenty-one market-towns; lies in the diocese of Norwich, and has 575 parishes.

The boroughs are Aldborough, Dunwich, Eye, Ipswich, Orford, Sudbury, and St. Edmund's Bury.

Aldborough stands on the banks of a river called the Ald. It is an ancient borough, consisting of two streets, close to the sea, of near a mile long; has a handsome church, and a considerable trade, particularly in corn. This town has been much injured by the encroachment of the sea.

Bury St. Edmund's, or St. Edmund's Bury, the county-town, sixty-seven miles from London, had formerly an abbey, reckoned one of the largest and richest in the world, and in the reigns of the first and second Edward here was a mint; the town was, however, first incorporated by James I. and the county assizes and quarter sessions are usually kept here. It stands on the left side of the river Bourne, or Lark, is beautifully situated, and from its good air has been called the Montpellier of England. It is a mile and a half long, is walled, has five gates, two good churches, and is much frequented by the nobility and gentry. The only manufacture is spinning.

Dunwich is situated on the coast of the German ocean, and is the oldest town in the county; it sent members as early as Edward I. Here are said to have been many churches, but they are all swallowed up by the encroachment of the sea, except one. It is now a poor place.

Eye, situated on the road between Ipswich and Norwich, is a mean place, but has a handsome church. The only manufacture is bone-lace.

Ipswich enjoys several privileges, as that no freeman can be compelled to serve on a jury out of

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the town, or bear any office for the county, except that of sheriff. It has also an admiralty jurisdiction; is a neat, well-built, populous town, situated on the Orwell, has twenty-two parish-churches, with several public buildings, a convenient quay, and a good trade, especially in corn. The chief manufactures are linen and woollen cloths.

Orford, situated on the Ore, was incorporated by Henry III. It was once a populous town, and had formerly a good harbour; but the sea has withdrawn from it many years.

The other market-towns are Beccles, Bildesdon, Brandon, Botesdale, Bungay, Clare, Debenham, Framlingham, Hadley, Haveril, Ixworth, Lavenham, Lowestoff, Mendlesham, Mildenhall, Needham, Neyland, Saxmundham, Southwold, Stow-Market, and Woodbridge.

Beccles is a populous town; but the buildings are mean. Bungay is a handsome town, and the houses well built; here are two parish-churches, a good market-place, and a bridge over the Waveney. Debenham stands on the river Deben, but is a town not much frequented.

Framlingham is an ancient town, pleasantly situated, has a stately church built of black flint, with a steeple 100 feet high.

Hadley was once incorporated, but a *quo warranto* being issued against the charter in the reign of James II. it has not been renewed. It has a manufacture of woollen cloths, and trades much in corn.

Halesworth is an ancient town famous for the vast quantities of linen yarn spun in its neighbourhood and bought up here.

Lavenham is a large town, and pleasantly situated, consisting of nine streets: in the centre of the town is a church esteemed the handsomest in the county; the roof is curiously carved, and the windows

windows finely painted. Here is a considerable mart for wool, and some manufactures of serges, shalloons, and other stuffs.

Lowestoff is a straggling town on a rock, which seems to hang over the sea: the inhabitants are chiefly fishermen.

Neyland has a manufacture of cloths called bays and says.

Southwold, situated on a peninsula formed by the river Blyth and the sea, is an agreeable, populous town. There is a great resort of mariners to this town, which has a considerable trade in salt, beer, herrings, &c.

Stow-Market is a large town, and has a manufactory of tammies and other stuffs.

Woodbridge stands on the west bank of the Deben, which is navigable up to the town. Here are four or five docks for building ships. It has a good trade to London, Newcastle, and to Holland.

This county was anciently inhabited by the Iceni, and was part of the kingdom of the East Angles.

The gentlemen's seats here are many; the chief, Aiton, Ampton, Botesdale, Coldham, Dunstan Hall, Euston, Flixton, Glenham, Heveningham, Ickworth, Loudhall, Rushbrook, Saxham, &c.

Chap. XXXVI.—*Surry*

Has the river Thames on the north; Sussex on the south; Kent on the east; and Berkshire and Hampshire on the west. Its length is thirty-four, breadth twenty-one miles.

The rivers which water Surry are the Thames, the Mole, the Wey, and the Wandle. The Thames has been before spoken of, and it is sufficient here to notice, that the tide runs up as high as Richmond, in this county. The Mole rises near Dorking, runs along

along the borders of Sussex to Boxhill, where it passes under ground, appears again at Leatherhead, and falls into the Thames opposite Hampton Court. The Wey rises near Alton in Hampshire, passes Farnham, Godalming, and Woking, and enters the Thames by a double mouth near Chertsey. It is navigable to Godalming. The Wandle rises at Carshalton, and falls into the Thames at Wandsworth.

The air of Surry is pleasant and healthy, except in the heart of the county, where it is bleak. The soil various, in most parts fruitful, except in the heart of the county, where there is much open and sandy ground and barren heath. In some places there are long ridges of hills and downs, which afford only warrens and parks.

This county produces great quantities of box-wood and walnut-tree; and on the downs called Banstead downs, which stretch thirty miles, there is a short herbage perfumed with thyme and juniper, which the sheep feed on, and produces fine-flavoured mutton. The chief manufacture of this county is woollen cloths.

It is divided into thirteen hundreds, has six boroughs and nine market-towns, lies in the diocese of Winchester, and has 140 parishes.

The boroughs are Gatton, Haslemere, Blechingly, Guilford, Ryegate, and Southwark: two of these, Blechingly and Gatton, have no market.

Blechingly is an ancient borough by prescription. It is a small town, and has a handsome church.

Gatton, also an ancient borough by prescription, is a mean place.

Guilford, the county town, thirty miles from London, stands on the Wye, was a royal seat in the time of the Saxons, and first incorporated by Henry V. The assizes of the county are often held

held here, and the election for knights of the shire always. The town is large and handsome, and stands on the high road from London to Chichester and Portsmouth. It has two churches and several handsome public buildings. There are some remains of a manufacture of cloth, which was once considerable.

Haslemere is an ancient borough by prescription; Ryegate is the same: both places of little consequence.

Southwark has been noticed as connected with London; it sends two members to parliament.

The other market-towns are, Chertsey, Croydon, Dorking, Epsom, Ewell, Farnham, Kingston, and Woking.

Chertsey had a good trade in malt to London: the hundred in which it stands is exempt from the jurisdiction of the sheriff.

Croydon has a church, reckoned one of the handsomest in the county, and had near it a palace of the Archbishop of Canterbury, lately pulled down.

Dorking has a considerable trade in meal, and is the first market in England for lambs and poultry.

Boxhill is so called from being planted with a number of box-trees: the hill affords an enchanting prospect.

Epsom stands on the north of Banstead downs, and is celebrated for its medicinal waters; it is a pleasant town, and has several fine seats of gentry in the neighbourhood.

Farnham is an ancient town, built by the Saxons; the Bishop of Winchester has a palace here. It is a large, populous town, has one of the greatest wheat-markets in England, and the inhabitants deal also considerably in hops.

Godalming,

Godalming, or Godliman, was likewise a Saxon town; it has a manufacture of cloth; some stockings and brown paper are made here.

Kingston was formerly a place of residence for several Saxon kings, some of whom were crowned here. It is called Kingston *upon Thames*, to distinguish it from other towns of the same name, and was incorporated by King John. During the reigns of Edward II. and III. it sent members to parliament. Here the summer assizes for the county are generally held. It has a bridge over the Thames.

Between this town and Richmond is a fine royal park, called Richmond park, encompassed with a wall, said to be eleven miles round.

Richmond is not a market-town, but is undoubtedly one of the finest villages in the kingdom. It was formerly called Sheen, and was named Richmond, from being made the summer residence of Henry VII. who was Earl of Richmond. The town runs near a mile along the Thames, and being on a hill, the gardens decline all the way to the Thames. An elegant stone bridge over the river was erected in 1771. At Kew, near Richmond, is a palace of the King's, and a new one building.

Surry was part of the territory of the Regni, and under the Saxons formed part of the South Saxon kingdom.

The chief seats in this county, which indeed abounds in them, are, Albury, Ashtead, Bagshot, Blechingly, Burwood, Busbridge, Chertsey, Clermont, Cobham, Comb, Deepden, Esher, Ember Court, Farnham, Gatton, Ham, Henley, Marden, Norbury, Oatlands, Pains-Hill, Petersham, Roehampton, Sheen, and Wimbledon.

CHAP.

Chap. XXXVII.—*Sussex,*

Bounded on the north by Surry; north-east by Kent; south by the British channel; and west by Hampshire: is sixty-five miles long and twenty-nine broad.

The principal rivers of this county are, the Arun, the Adur, the Ouse, and the Rother. The Arun rises near Horsham, runs to Arundel, and into the British channel three miles below that town. The Adur rises nearly in the same place, runs parallel to the Arun, passes Steyning and Bramber, and enters the Channel below New Shoreham. The Ouse has two branches, which rise in this county, and unite near Cuckfield, then pass Lewes, and enter the Channel at Newhaven. The Rother rises at Rotherfield, and after dividing into two streams unites again, and falls into the Channel near Rye.

The air on the sea-coast is sometimes unhealthy to strangers; the inhabitants, however, do not suffer by it. The soil in the weald is rich and deep, and produces abundance of oats and hops. The northern parts have much wood-land, and furnish fine timber for the navy. The middle of the county is delightful. In the south parts are downs, which feed a multitude of sheep, whose wool is very fine. Sussex produces iron-ore, which forms the principal article of manufacture in the county.

The general division of Sussex is into *rapes*, a division peculiar to this county. These are subdivided into sixty-five hundreds. In this county there are one city, twelve borough-towns, five market-towns, and 342 parishes, which are in the diocese of Chichester.

Chichester, sixty-three miles from London, is a very ancient city, the seat of the Saxon kings, and has

has been a bishop's see ever since William the Conqueror. It is a county of itself, and has been chartered by James II. Chichester is surrounded by the river Lavant on every side except the north, and is a neat, compact city, enclosed by a stone wall, with four gates, answering to the cardinal points of the compass. The streets are broad and well built. Besides the cathedral there are five parish-churches, and a stately cross in the centre of the city. The cathedral is small but neat, and has a spire much admired for its workmanship. The river is not deep enough to form a good harbour, yet the city has some foreign trade by means of a small haven near. It sends much wheat, flour, and timber, to London, and the corn-market is one of the first in England.

The borough-towns are, Arundel, Bramber, Horsham, Grinsted (East), Lewes, Midhurst, Shoreham, and Steyning; and the Cinque Ports, Hastings, Rye, Seaford, and Winchelsea. Bramber and Seaford have no markets.

Bramber is an ancient borough by prescription.

Seaford is a Cinque Port, was incorporated by Henry VIII. and is only a small fishing town.

Arundel, called so from its situation on the banks of the Arun, is a borough by prescription, and so ancient as to be mentioned in King Alfred's will. It has a charter from Queen Elizabeth, which gives the mayor many privileges; and is pleasantly situated on the side of a hill. Near to the town is an ancient castle, called Arundel castle, which is the only local dignity possessed by a subject now remaining in England, the proprietor of this castle and manor being Earls of Arundel without any creation. This dignity is now possessed by the Duke of Norfolk.

Of the market-towns, Battel derives the name from

from the battle which was fought near it between Harold and William the Conqueror; the place is not esteemed healthy, from its low situation.

Grinsted (East), called so to distinguish it from a town of the same name west of it, is a borough by prescription, and is the place where the county assizes are held.

Hastings is an ancient place, and had a mint in the reign of King Athelstan: it is the chief of the Cinque Ports, and has charters from several of our kings: the corporation has power to hold courts of judicature in capital cases. The town has two streets, and a church in each; many fishermen live in it.

Horsham is a borough by prescription: the county assizes are held and the county jail kept here: this is the largest town in Sussex, has a fine church, and a well-endowed free-school. Vast quantities of poultry are bought up here for the London market.

Lewes is a borough by prescription, a large and populous town, and has also large suburbs. The streets are handsome; here are six parish-churches. From a windmill in the neighbourhood there is a prospect, said for extent to be equal to any in Europe.

Midhurst is a borough by prescription, is a large town pleasantly situated.

Rye is an appendage to the Cinque Port of Hastings, and enjoys the same privileges as these ports. It has sent members to parliament ever since 1368. The corporation holds by prescription. The town stands on the peninsula formed by the sea and the river Rother, over which there is a bridge. This is one of the largest parishes in England, and was formerly one of the most considerable harbours on the coast, but became choked up by sand; however,

ever, by act of parliament and great labour, it has been in some degree restored.

Shoreham (New) is a borough by prescription, and although a great part of the town has been washed away by the sea, it is still a populous place. The harbour is tolerably good, and many ships are built here.

Steyning is a poor town adjoining to Bramber, yet is, however, a borough by prescription, and has a very considerable fair for cattle at Michaelmas.

Winchelsea is one of the Cinque Ports; it had the sea once near it, but it has now deserted it, and there remains only the skeleton of a town, and of three parish-churches only the chancel of one of them.

The other market-towns are Brighthelmstone, Cuckfield, Haylsham, Petworth, and Terring.

Petworth is a large populous town; the rectory is esteemed the richest in the county. Brighthelmstone has lately become famous as a bathing-place, and the country residence of the Heir Apparent.

The county was in ancient times inhabited by the Regni, and afterwards by the South Saxons.

Sussex is adorned with a number of fine seats, as Arundel, Ashburnham, Battel, Broadhurst, Combe, Firle, Goodwood, Hookland, Michelgrove, Petworth, South Bourne, Stanstead, Up-park, West Grinsted, and Wiston.

Chap. XXXVIII.—*Warwickshire*

Is bounded by Staffordshire and Leicestershire on the north; by Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire on the south; by Worcestershire on the west; and by Leicestershire and Northamptonshire on the east: is thirty-three miles long and twenty-six broad, and contains about 600,000 acres of land.

The

The principal rivers of Warwickshire are the Avon and the Thame. They have both been before mentioned.

The air is mild and pleasant, and the soil rich. In this county a great quantity of timber is grown, and many coal-mines are found.

Warwickshire possesses some of the chief manufacturing towns in England; it is divided into five hundreds, has one city, one borough, and eleven market-towns, and 150 parishes, part of which are in the diocese of Lichfield and Coventry, and part in that of Worcester.

The city of Coventry, which jointly with Lichfield is a bishop's see, is ninety miles from London, has many immunities from several of our kings, and has jurisdiction over about 200 villages. It is walled, and nearly three miles in circumference, and has twelve gates. The city is rich and populous, but the buildings are old. Here are three parish-churches, with other public buildings.

Warwick was a Saxon town, and is a very ancient corporation. The county assizes and quarter sessions are held here. The town stands on a freestone rock on the banks of the Avon. Here is a fine castle belonging to the Earl of Warwick. The chief trade of the town is in malt.

The market-towns are, Atherstone, Aulcester, Birmingham, Bitford, Coleshill, Henley, Kineton, Nuneaton, Rugby, Stratford, and Sutton-Coldfield.

Atherstone is a large, well-built town, famous for its cheese fair.

Birmingham is a very large populous town, much celebrated for its manufactures in iron, brass, and copper, which have increased in a few years in a wonderful degree.

Coleshill is a neat town, and considerable thoroughfare.

Henley, called from its situation *in Arden*, stands on the Alne. Arden was the ancient name for this part of the country.

Stratford upon Avon is a large and populous town, said to be as old as the Conquest; it is chiefly known as the burying-place of our immortal Shakespear; it has a good trade in corn and malt.

Sutton-Coldfield is a large town, and is said to be the centre of England.

This county was formerly inhabited by the Cornavii, and afterwards was part of the kingdom of Mercia.. Two Roman roads ran through this shire, the Watling Street and Fossway.

Few counties can boast a finer cultivation than Warwickshire; the number of seats are many: the chief are, Allesly, Belton, Coleshill, Kenilworth, Middleton, Packington, Ragley, and Warwick Castle.

CHAP. XXXIX.—*Westmoreland*

Is bounded by Cumberland on the west and north-west; by Durham on the north-east; by Yorkshire on the east; and by Lancashire on the south. Its length is forty miles, and its breadth nearly the same.

Westmoreland is well watered with rivers, and has several lakes, or large bodies of water. The principal rivers are the Eden, the Emont, the Loder, the Can, and the Lon.

The Eden has been noticed in the account of Cumberland. The Emont comes from the lake called Ulswater, passes by Penrith, and falls into the Eden; the Loder, from the lake called Broadwater, and falls into the Emont; the Can, from the lake of Kentmere near Ambleside, passes Kendal, and falls into the Irish sea. The Lon has been described.

The

The principal lake of this county is the Winander-mere; it lies south of Ambleside, is ten miles long and two broad, and has several islands in it. This lake is remarkable for its beauty, and producing the fish called char.

The chief manufactures are stockings and woollen cloth.

The air of this county is pleasant and mild in the low lands, but sharp and piercing in the mountains. The county consists of two divisions, the barony of Westmoreland and the barony of Kendal. That of Westmoreland is an open country, consisting of arable land, and producing plenty of corn and grass. Kendal is mountainous; the vallies, however, are fruitful, and the mountains yield pasture.

Each of the above divisions is subdivided into two wards, and each ward into several constablewicks. It has no division of hundreds, nor any city; but one borough and seven market-towns. The barony of Kendal lies in the diocese of York, and the other part in that of Chester.

The borough-town, Appleby, distant 270 miles from London, had its privileges first granted by Henry I. and confirmed by subsequent monarchs. It is pleasantly situated, has two churches, and the best corn-market in the northern parts: it is the county-town.

The market-towns are, Ambleside, Brough, Burton, Kendal, Kirkby-Lonsdale, Kirkby-Steven, and Orton.

Brough has a very considerable market.

Kendal is a large town, has seven trading companies, each of which has a hall. Here the sessions of the peace are held for the barony of Kendal. It is the largest town in the county, and has a large manufactory of woollens.

Westmoreland was inhabited by the Brigantes during the Roman government, and afterwards formed part of the kingdom of Northumberland. Two of the Roman military ways may be traced in this county.

The seats are, Appleby, Clifton, Hartley Castle, Kidlington, Lowther, Rydale, and Wharton.

Chap. XL.—*Wiltshire*

Borders west and north-west on Gloucestershire; north-east on Berkshire; west on Somersetshire; south on Dorsetshire; and south-east on Hampshire. Its length is about fifty, and its breadth thirty-four miles.

This county is watered by the Thames, Upper and Lower Avon, Nidder, Willey, Bourne, and Kennet. The Thames enters this county from Gloucestershire, and runs by Cricklade into Berkshire. The Upper Avon rises near Devizes, and passes by Salisbury into Hampshire; the Lower enters this county near Malmsbury, and passes Chippenham. The Nidder rises in Dorsetshire, and falls into the Willey near Wilton. The Willey rises near Warminster, and falls into the Avon near Salisbury. The Bourne, rising near Bedwin, falls into the same river. The Kennet rises near the spring of the Upper Avon, and passes by Marlborough into Berkshire.

The air of Wiltshire is mild even in winter.

The northern part of this county is fruitful, and the southern equally so; but the middle, called Salisbury Plain, consists chiefly of downs, which afford only good sheep pasture. The north part of this county yields plenty of wood. It is one of the first clothing counties in England; is divided into twenty-nine hundreds, has one city, fifteen boroughs and nine market-towns, and 304 parishes, lying in the diocese of Salisbury. The

The city, Salsbury or Salisbury, called also New Sarum, distant eighty-four miles from London, is a bishop's see, but has not been so more than 500 years. It was removed from Old Sarum. Henry III. granted it a charter of incorporation. It is a large, well-built, clean city, watered by the Avon. The cathedral is a Gothic building, one of the most elegant and regular in England, and has a beautiful spire. There are besides the cathedral three other churches, and a fine town-house. The river Avon runs through the streets in canals lined with brick. The manufactures of the city are flannels, druggets, and a cloth called Salsbury whites; they also make here bone-lace and scissars. The city is remarkably flourishing.

The borough-towns are, Devizes, Marlborough, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Hindon, Old Sarum, Westbury, Wootton-Basset, Luggershall, Wilton, Downton, Bedwin, Malmsbury, and Heytesbury.

Bedwin, called also Great Bedwin, is an ancient borough by prescription. Here is a spacious church built of flint, with a cement almost as hard as the stones.

Calne is likewise a borough by prescription; it is a populous town, and has a manufacture of cloth.

Chippenham is also a borough by prescription, and has been incorporated by Queen Mary; it is a populous, well-built town, and has a magnificent church, a bridge of sixteen arches over the Avon, and a manufactory of cloth.

Cricklade is an ancient borough by prescription.

Devizes was incorporated by Charles I. is a populous town, has three parish-churches, a considerable cloth manufactory, and a good trade in malt. Here is one of the best markets for corn, wool, horses, and cattle, in England.

Downton is an ancient borough by prescription.

 Heytesbury

Heytesbury the same. Hindon is a small borough, and has a manufactory of fine twist.

Luggershall is a borough by prescription, but consists only of a few mean houses.

Malmsbury was incorporated by Edward, King of the West Saxons, in 916, but is now governed by a charter of William III. It is a neat town; the church was formerly an abbey-church, and has in it the sepulchral monument of King Arthur. This town has a considerable woollen manufacture.

Marlborough is a borough by prescription; it is a well-built town, consisting chiefly of one street with a piazza on the one side of it. Here are two churches, but little manufacture.

Old Sarum is about a mile north of the city of Salsbury, and was formerly a bishop's see; but the see being removed, it has since fallen to ruin, and is now reduced to a single house. The members are elected by the proprietors of certain adjacent lands.

Westbury was first incorporated by Henry IV. has a good church, a manufacture of broad-cloth, and a great market for corn.

Wilton is an ancient town, and in the time of the Saxons was a bishop's see, with twelve parish-churches; but is now a mean place, with only one church and a carpet manufactory. Here, however, is the magnificent palace of the Earl of Pembroke, justly admired as one of the greatest objects of curiosity in Europe.

Wootton-Basset is a borough by prescription, a mean place, and the people all poor.

The market-towns are, Amesbury, Auburn, Bradford, Highworth, Lavington (East), Mere, Swindon, Trowbridge, and Warminster.

Amesbury is a very ancient town.

Trowbridge has a considerable manufactory of cloth.

cloth. A court of the dutchy of Lancaster for this county is held here annually.

Warminster is a populous place, and has a considerable trade in malt, cheese, wool, and cloth.

The other towns are of little consequence.

Wiltshire was a part of the territories of the Belgæ, and also of the West Saxon kingdom.

This beautiful county has an immense number of noblemen and gentlemen's seats; among them, Amesbury, Bowood, Maiden-Bradley, Charlton, Cheveril, Chilton, Cole Park, Draycot, Foxley, Fonthill, Heytesbury, Imbor, Longleat, Overton, Park House, Seend, Spy Park, Standlynch, Stourhead, Wardour, Wilton, &c.

CHAP. XLI.—*Worcestershire*

Has Staffordshire on the north; Gloucestershire on the south; Shropshire and Herefordshire on the west; and Warwickshire on the east. It is in length thirty-six miles, and in breadth twenty-eight.

Worcestershire is watered by the Severn, the Avon, the Stour, and the Teme or Temd. The Severn, Avon, and Temd, have been already described. The Stour rises near Stourbridge, and passing Kidderminster falls into the Severn near Bewdley.

The air of this county is healthy, the soil rich, the hills covered with sheep, and the vallies abounding in corn and rich meadows. The Vale of Evesham, or Esham, is remarkably rich. Hops are much cultivated in this county; there are plenty of pear and apple trees, from whence excellent perry and cider are made; and it is also remarkable for brine-pits and salt-springs.

In Worcestershire they manufacture cloths, stockings, gloves, and glass; in which, with salt, hops,

hops, and other commodities, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade. The county is divided into seven hundreds, has one city, Worcester, three borough and seven market-towns. It lies in the diocese of Worcester, and has 152 parishes.

Worcester is 123 miles from London, was a city of the Saxons, is a bishop's see, and a county in itself, divided into seven wards, and governed by a charter from James I. It is pleasantly situated on the Severn, the streets are broad and well paved, the houses well built, and the public buildings make a handsome appearance. The cathedral is large, and in the choir is the body of King John. The city has twelve parish-churches, nine within the walls and three without. It has an ancient guildhall, and a bridge over the Severn, by which river Worcester is rendered a flourishing city. Its manufactures are cloth and gloves.

The boroughs are Bewdley, Droitwich, and Evesham.

Droitwich is supposed to have taken its name from its salt-pits, which the Saxons called Wiches. By these salt-works the town is much enriched, and the proprietors are a corporation; none who is not a proprietor can be a burgess of the town, or vote in the election of members of parliament.

Bewdley is finely situated on a hill by the side of the Severn. It sent burgesses to parliament in the reign of Edward I. and has several charters from the English kings. It is a populous, thriving town, but is not a parish, being only a chapel of ease to Ribbesford. It has a manufactory for Dutch caps.

Evesham, situated on the Avon, is an ancient borough, and enjoys many privileges, some by prescription, others by charter; the corporation has power to try for all offences, except high trea-son.

son. Here are two parish-churches, and a bridge over the Avon. It has a fine prospect of the surrounding country.

The other market-towns are Broomsgrove, Kidderminster, Pershore, Shipton, Stourbridge, Tutbury, and Upton.

At Broomsgrove there are considerable manufactures both of linen and woollen cloth.

Kidderminster, on the Stour, was an ancient borough, and once sent members to parliament; it is a well-built town, with a handsome church, and manufactories of cloth, carpets, &c.

Pershore is a large old town, has two parish-churches, and a manufactory of stockings.

Shipton, called from its situation, *upon Stour*, is a small town, but has a very large market.

Stourbridge is a well-built town, and has been much enriched by the glass and iron works in the town and neighbourhood.

Worcestershire was anciently inhabited by the Cornavii, and, under the Saxons, formed part of the kingdom of Mercia.

The pleasant situation of this county has encouraged many noblemen and gentlemen to build seats in it, of which the chief are, Crome, Dudley, Elmsley, Hagley, Hancourt, Hartlebury, Hanbury, Holt, Howel Grange, Maddersfield, Northwick, Ombersley, Overbury, Pull Court, Rouse Linch, Standford, and Westwood.

CHAP. XLII.—*Yorkshire*,

The largest county in England, is bounded by Durham on the north; the German ocean on the east; Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Lincolnshire, on the south; and Cheshire, Lancashire, and Westmoreland, on the west. It is no less than 114 miles long and eighty broad.

This county is well watered; the chief rivers are, the Don, Calder, Aire, Wharfe, Nidd, Ure, Swale, Ouse, Derwent, Hull, Humber, and the Tees. The Don rises near Barnsley, and passing by Sheffield, Rotherham, Doncaster, and Thorn, joins the Aire at Snaith. The Calder rises in Lancashire, and falls into the Aire near Wakefield. The Wharfe rises near Craven hills, and runs parallel to the Aire through Wetherby and Tadcaster, near which it falls into the Ouse. The Nidd also rises in the Craven hills, and running parallel to the Wharfe through Ripley and Knaresborough, soon after falls into the Wharfe. The Ure, Yare, or Yark, rises in Westmoreland, passes Middleham, Masham, Rippon, and Boroughbridge, and joins the Swale. The Swale rises near the same place, passes to Richmond, near to which it has a fall, and forms a cataract, runs on to York, where it receives the Ouse, and then to the Humber. The Derwent rises near Whitby, and passing by Malton falls into the Ouse. The Hull rises near Kelham, passes Beverly, and falls into the Humber. This river, the Humber, is an estuary, or arm of the sea, but has a regular tide. The Tees parts this county and Durham.

Yorkshire is divided into three Ridings, each of which is as large as many shires; each has a separate lord lieutenant and commission of the peace. They are called the East, the West, and the North Ridings. The Ouse forms the line of separation between the East and West Ridings. The East and North Ridings are separated by the Ure, as the West and North are by the Derwent.

The air of the West Riding is sharp but healthy; the soil various. This Riding is famous for horses, goats, and other cattle. The East Riding has the air not so pure and healthy, and the air of the North

Riding

Riding is sharper and purer than either. The soil, of course, in so large a tract of land is various.

These Ridings are subdivided into twenty-six wapentakes or hundreds. The whole county has one city, thirteen borough-towns, and thirty-nine market-towns. The whole (except Richmond, which lies in the diocese of Chester) lies in the diocese of York.

York, distant 196 miles from London, is the second city in point of rank in England, and is the see of an archbishop. Several parliaments have been held here in the reigns of Edward I. and II. Henry VIII. established a council or senate here, something similar to the parliaments of France, which took cognizance of all causes in the north of England. Richard I. granted it a mayor, and Richard II. bestowed on him the title of Lord. York is a county of itself, and has jurisdiction over thirty-six villages and hamlets, called the liberty of Anstey. The city is divided into twelve wards, and the lord mayor and aldermen have the conservancy over the rivers Ouse, Humber, Wharfe, Derwent, Aire, and Don, within certain limits.

York is situated on a large plain, in a fruitful soil and fine air. It is surrounded with walls, and has four gates and five posterns. It has twenty-eight parishes, but only seventeen parish-churches, besides the cathedral. The city has a fine bridge over the Ouse, a handsome mansion-house for the lord mayor, and the cathedral is esteemed one of the finest Gothic buildings in England.

The boroughs are, Aldborough, Allerton (North), Boroughbridge, Beverly, Headon, Knaresborough, Kingston-upon-Hull, Malton, Pontefract, Richmond, Rippon, Scarborough, and Thirsk.

Aldborough is an ancient borough. Allerton, called North Allerton, is also an ancient borough,

lies on the bank of a river called the Wiske; it is a good market for cattle and corn.

Beverly is an ancient borough, governed under a charter from Queen Elizabeth, whose officers have a jurisdiction over 100 neighbouring towns, and a large district between the Humber and the sea, called Holderness. The sessions of the East Riding are kept here. Beverly stands at some distance from the river Hull. The town is about a mile long, the streets broad and well paved. Here are two churches, the finest parochial churches in England. The principal manufactures are malt, tanned leather, and bone-lace.

Boroughbridge has a manufacture of hardware; it has a bridge over the river Ure.

Doncaster is a large and populous town, has two bridges over the Don, and a neat church with an admirable steeple. Here they knit breeches, gloves, and stockings.

Headon, or Hedon, is a pleasant, well-built little town, and was once a place of considerable trade; but its river, a small stream near the Humber, being choked up, the trade is decayed.

Kingston *upon Hull*, commonly called Hull, is situated at the influx of that river into the Humber. It was first incorporated by Edward III. Henry VI. made it a county of itself. The mayor is admiral within the liberties of the Humber. The town lies low, and is surrounded by a wall. It has a castle, citadel, and blockhouse to defend it. Here are two churches, a free-school, and a Trinity-house, on a similar plan to that of Deptford, an exchange, and a good stone bridge. Hull is the most considerable place of trade in the north, both foreign and domestic.

Knaresborough is almost surrounded by the Nidd, and was once famous for its medicinal springs.

Malton,

Malton, or New Malton, is a borough by prescription, very populous, and being a great thoroughfare, has a number of good inns, and a considerable market for horses, black cattle, and tools for husbandry.

Pontefract, or Pomfret, was incorporated by Richard III. is a neat town, delighfully situated; the country round is famous for limestone and liquorice.

Richmond was built in the time of William the Conqueror. It is a large and populous town, and has thirteen free companies of tradesmen. This borough has been annexed to the dutchy of Lancaster ever since the time of Richard II. It is enclosed with walls, and has three gates which lead to its suburbs, two churches, and a good bridge over the Swale. Yarn stockings and woollen caps for seamen are made here.

Rippon was a borough very early, but lost that privilege, which was restored in the first year of Queen Mary. It was incorporated by James I. and governed under a charter of James II. is a pleasant, well-built, and populous town, stands on the Ure, has a venerable Gothic church, which is both parochial and collegiate, and has three spire steeples. The market-place is reckoned the finest square of the kind in England. It had formerly a considerable woollen manufactory, which is now lost; but is still a staple for wool.

Scarborough, situated on a steep rock, surrounded by the sea, is an ancient borough. The situation of this town is romantic; it has a commodious key, and the best harbour between Newcastle and the Humber, and the pier, which is maintained by a duty on coals shipped from Newcastle and Sunderland. The place has a good trade in coals, and is considerable in the fisheries. But its great advantage

tage is the resort of persons of fashion to drink the waters, which are found beneficial in many cases.

Thirsk is an ancient borough.

The market-towns are, Aberforth, Barnsley, Bawtry, Bradford, Gisburne, Hallifax, Hutherfield, Leeds, Otley, Ripley, Rotherham, Selby, Settle, Sheffield, Sherborne, Snaith, Tadcaster, Thorn, Tickhall, Wakefield, Wetherby, Bridlington, Hornsey, Howden, Kelham, Patrington, Pocklington, Weighton, Askrig, Bedale, Gisborough, Helmsley, Kirkby, Masham, Middleham, Pickering, Stokesley, Whitby, and Yarum.

Barnsley has a considerable trade in wire, and steel and iron ware.

Bawtry is a great thoroughfare on the road to Scotland, and is well furnished with good inns. It has a trade in milstones, grindstones, lead, and iron, brought from Derbyshire.

Bedale is noted for the value of the parochial living. In this neighbourhood is the best breed of hunting and road horses.

Bridlington has a good harbour or bay, and a considerable trade.

Gisborough is situated on the south side of the Tees, is a well-built town, and in the neighbourhood are some veins of iron. Near to it is a bay and harbour for ships.

Hallifax stands on the Calder, has a venerable old church and twelve chapels, and is reckoned the most populous and largest parish in England. The industry of its inhabitants has rendered Hallifax one of the most flourishing towns in this kingdom. The woollen manufactory is here pursued with unwearied industry.

Howden has a palace belonging to the bishopric of Durham.

Leeds was chartered by Charles II. and is one of the

the largest and most flourishing towns in this county. It has two churches and many public establishments, and a good bridge over the Aire. It has been long famous for its woollen manufacture; it has also some medicinal springs.

Otley is situated on a cliff on the south of the river Wharfe, and is reckoned one of the most delightful spots in England.

Pickering is a large town belonging to the dutchy of Lancaster, and has jurisdiction over several neighbouring villages.

Selby is a place of considerable trade, and the residence of many merchants.

Sheffield stands on the borders of Derbyshire, and is famous for its manufacture of cutlery. It is a thriving, large, and populous town. Here are a church built by Henry I. and several public buildings.

Wakefield is a large town, extremely populous, arising from its considerable woollen manufacture. The other market-towns are of little note.

This county was the seat of the Brigantes, and part of the kingdom of Northumberland. Yorkshire can boast many antiquities, Roman, Saxon, and Danish.

The chief seats in the North Riding are, Acklom, Bolton, Castle Howard, Burton Constable, Duncombe, Hollings, Hornby, Mulgrave, Newborough, Newby, Ravensworth, Studley, Thirkleby, and Thorpe. In the East Riding, Burton, Londesborough, Moorby, and Risby. In the West Riding, Allerton, Artherston, Bretton, Cowick, Danton, Farnley, Harewood, Kippax, Kirklees, Lenthorp, Methley, Newland, Ripley, Sandbeck, Skipton, Studley Royal, Thornville, Thorpe, Wentworth, Weston, and Woodley.

CHAP.

Chap. XLIII.—*Wales.*

Wales is surrounded on all sides by the sea, except the east, where it touches on the English counties of Cheshire, Shropshire, Hereford, and Monmouth; the two last of which have at times formed part of Wales.

Wales is divided into North and South: the counties forming each division have been already pointed out.

Anglesea, which is an island, and one of the counties, is separated from the county of Caernarvon by the frith or strait of Menai. It has two small rivers, the Brant and Keveney; the first falls into the strait of Menai, the other into the Irish sea.

The air is healthy, except in winter, when it is subject to fogs. Anglesea has six hundreds, two market-towns, and seventy-four parishes, in the diocese of Bangor.

The towns are Beaumaris and Newburgh.

Beaumaris, about 250 miles from London, is a handsome, well-built town, where the great sessions, county court, and quarter sessions, are held. Not far from hence is Holyhead.

This was the celebrated isle of Mona, the seat of the Druids, and formed part of the country of the Ardovices.

Brecknockshire has Radnorshire on the north; Glamorganshire on the south; Herefordshire and Monmouthshire on the east; Cardiganshire and Caermarthenshire on the west.

The county of Brecon is watered by the Wye, the Usk, and the Yrvon, which rises in Cardiganshire, and falls into the Wye near Builth. The air of this county is every where mild, except on the hills. The soil is stony, but near the rivers fruitful,

ſruitful. The chief manufactures are cloth and stockings. The county is divided into six hundreds, has one borough and two market-towns, and sixty-one parishes, in the diocese of St. David's.

Brecon, the borough, distant 175 miles from London, is a well-built town, and has a good share of the woollen manufacture.

Brecknockshire was part of the territory of the Silures.

Caermarthenshire is bounded north by Cardiganshire; south by the river Severn and St. George's channel; east by Brecknock and Glamorganshire; and west by Pembrokeshire.

The chief rivers of this county are the Towey, the Cothy, and the Tave.

The Towey is a fine river, rises near Tregarron, and running south-west by Caermarthen falls into St. George's channel. The Cothy rises near the same place, and falls into the Towey. The Tave rises near the Towey, and falls into the Irish sea near Cardigan.

The air of Caermarthen is reckoned more mild than the neighbouring counties, and the soil more fruitful. It is divided into six hundreds, has one borough and five market-towns.

Caermarthen, the borough, distant 220 miles from London, is very ancient, and was made a borough by Henry VIII. It was anciently reckoned the capital of Wales; and when Wales was by the King of England erected into a principality, the courts of chancery and exchequer were kept here. The town is well situated, and the country round reckoned the wealthiest and most polite of all Wales. It has a bridge over the Towey, and a considerable trade.

The market-towns are Kidwelly, Llandillovaur, Llanelthy, Llangarn, and Llanimdovery.

The

The Dimetæ inhabited this county of old.

Caernarvon is washed on the north, south, and east sides, by the Irish sea and strait of Menai; and east by the counties of Denbigh and Merioneth.

The chief rivers are the Conway and the Seiont: the former comes from a lake called Llyon (Conway), and falls into the Irish sea at Aberconway. It is one of the most considerable streams in Europe for its length, being only twelve miles, eight of which it is navigable. The Seiont rises in a lake called Llyn-Peris, and falls into the straits of Menai. This county has also several lakes and smaller rivers.

The air of this county, from the lakes and high mountains, is cold and piercing; most part of it is, however, fruitful.

It has seven hundreds, one city, one borough, and two market-towns.

Bangor, the city, 251 miles distant from London, is small, but well inhabited, and has a harbour for boats. The cathedral is said to have been built in A. D. 176; if so, it is the oldest in the kingdom.

Caernarvon, situated near the straits of Menai, is a neat town, has a ferry to Anglesea, and a pretty good harbour.

The market-towns are, Aberconway and Pulheli; neither of them places of any importance.

This county was inhabited by the Ardovices.

Cardiganshire has Merionethshire and Montgomeryshire on the north; Pembrokeshire and Caermarthenshire on the south; Radnorshire and Brecknockshire on the east; and the Irish sea on the west.

The rivers are the Towey, the Rydal, and the Ystwith. The former has been mentioned. The Rydal rises near Plynlymmon, and falls into the sea at Aberystwith. The Ystwith rises near the

same

same place, and falls into the sea near the same town.

The southern and western parts of this county have a mild air, and are fruitful; the northern and eastern being mountainous are bleak, and comparatively barren; yet the worst land will feed cattle and sheep. Cardiganshire is divided into five hundreds, has one borough and four market-towns, seventy-seven parishes, and lies in the diocese of St. David.

Cardigan, 236 miles from London, is an ancient borough; its members are elected by the burgesses of this and the towns of Aberystwith, Llanbadarnvawr, Llanbeder, St. Peter, and Tregarron. These may, therefore, be styled boroughs. The town is pleasantly situated, is the county town, and has a considerable trade.

Aberystwith is a large, populous, and rich town; but has no parish-church, being part of the parish of Llanbadarnvawr. It has a good trade in lead, and a fishery. Llanbadarnvawr has a handsome church, is a well-built town, and has a good harbour. The other two places are good towns.

Under the Romans this county was inhabited by the Dimetæ.

Denbighshire has to the north the Irish sea and part of Flintshire; Montgomeryshire on the south; Cheshire and Shropshire on the east; Caernarvonshire and Merionethshire on the west.

The soil of this county and the air, as in the others, vary according to the situation, whether vale or mountain; but this county possesses the extreme both ways. The air is, however, healthy, and the inhabitants are in general long-lived. Much lead is dug out of the earth in this county, and it has manufactures of gloves and flannels. Denbighshire has twelve hundreds, one borough, and two market-

market-towns. It is divided into fifty-seven parishes, part being at the diocese of St. Asaph, and part in that of Bangor.

Denbigh, 218 miles from London, is a large, handsome, and populous town, chiefly inhabited by tanners and glovers. It has a good market for corn, cattle, and other provisions: the ground on which it is built being limestone, the waters are not good.

Ruthin is a good town, but has no parish-church, being in the parish of Llan-Rhud.

Wrexham is situated on a good soil on the bank of a stream which falls into the Dee. It is a place of great resort, a handsome well-built town with a large church, the steeple of which is reckoned one of the finest in Britain. Here is a great market for flannels.

Denbighshire was part of the country of the Ardovices.

Flintshire is bounded by an arm of the Irish sea to the north; Cheshire on the east; Denbighshire and Salop to the south; and by Denbighshire and the Irish sea on the west.

It is watered by the Dee, the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Sevion, and the Allen. The Dee and Clwyd have been mentioned. The Wheeler rises near Caerwys, and falls into the Clwyd near Denbigh; the Sevion near the same place, and falls into the same river near St. Asaph. The Allen comes from Denbigh, and falls into the Dee.

The air is cold, but healthy, and this county is not so mountainous as the other counties of Wales, and is therefore more fruitful. Great quantities of butter and cheese are made in this county. Flintshire has five hundreds, one city, one borough, and one market-town, and twenty-eight parishes,

part

part of which are in the diocese of Chester, and part in that of St. Asaph.

The city of St. Asaph, 210 miles from London, stands in a pleasant vale, but is a poor town; the cathedral is a mean structure. Here are two bridges, one over the Clwyd, the other over a small river called the Elwy.

Flint, the borough-town, has a small harbour; the assizes are held here, and here is the county-jail. At Caerwys here is a good market.

This county was formerly inhabited by the Ardovices.

Glamorganshire has Brecknockshire and Caermarthenshire on the north; the Severn or Bristol channel on the south and west; and Monmouthshire on the east.

The chief rivers are the Rhymny, Taff, Ogmore, Avon, and Tavy. The Rhymny rises on the borders of Breconshire, parts this county and Monmouthshire, and falls into the Severn east of Cardiff. The Taff rises in Brecknockshire likewise, passes Llandaff and Cardiff, and then falls into the Severn. The Ogmore comes from Brecknockshire, passes Cowbridge, and joins the Severn some miles below. The Avon rises near Ogmore in this county, and falls into the Severn near Aberavon. The Tavy rises in Brecknockshire, and falls into the Bristol channel at Swansea.

The north part of this county is mountainous, and the air cold; the soil in these mountains barren. The southern parts are so fruitful and pleasant, that they are called the garden of Wales. This county has many valuable mines of coal, copper, and lead. It is divided into ten hundreds, has one city, one borough, and four market-towns. The number of parishes are 118, part of which are in the

the diocese of St. David, and part in that of Llandaff.

Llandaff is a mean place, which has nothing of note except the cathedral; and this, although built in 1107, is still a fine structure.

Cardiff is the borough, 163 miles from London, and is an ancient corporation, and the place where the assizes are held. It is a large, well-built town, reckoned the best in South Wales. Here are two parishes, but only one church. The town has a bridge over the Taff, a commodious harbour, and a good trade.

The market-towns are Cowbridge, Neath, Penrice, and Swansea.—Cowbridge has a bridge over a small river called the Ewanny, and a harbour for boats. Neath is an ancient town, pretty large, with a haven for small vessels, and a good trade in copper and coals. Swansea is also an ancient town, well built and populous, has a good harbour, from which much coal, culm, and copper is exported. This town has more trade than any other in the county.

This county was anciently inhabited by the Silures.

Merionethshire is bounded by Denbigh and Caernarvon shires on the north; Denbigh and Montgomery shires on the east; Cardiganshire on the south; and the Irish sea on the west. The rivers are the Dyffi, Avon, Drwrydh, and Dee. The Dyffi rises in the mountains on the east of this county, separates Merioneth and Cardigan shires, and falls into the Irish sea near Aberystwith. The Avon rises near Balá, and passing Dolgelle runs into the Irish sea. The Drwrydh runs into the same sea near Harlech. The Dee has been described.

This being a rocky county, the air is cold and bleak, and by some esteemed unhealthy. The soil

is

is the worst in Wales; it yields little corn; and the inhabitants live chiefly on butter, cheese, and other preparations of milk. They are, however, stout and comely, and apply themselves chiefly to the feeding of cattle. This county is divided into six hundreds and thirty-seven parishes, which are all in the diocese of Bangor. It has three market-towns, Bala, Dolgelle, and Harlech.

Bala, 205 miles from London, is a mean, inconsiderable place. Dolgelle lies on the banks of the Avon, has some good inns, and a manufacture of Welsh flannels. Harlech has a good harbour, although few ships visit it; the houses are mean, and the inhabitants few.

This county was also peopled by the Ardovices.

Montgomeryshire has Denbighshire on the north; Shropshire on the east; Radnorshire on the south; and Merionethshire on the west.

The rivers are the Severn, the Tanat, and the Turgh. The Tanat rises near Llanvilling, and falls into the Severn. The Turgh rises in the western part of the county, and falls into the Tanat.

The air varies, as in the neighbouring county. The soil in the northern and western parts is mountainous, stony, and steril; in the other parts a fine fruitful vale. The black cattle and horses are larger than in the neighbouring Welsh counties, and the horses are much prized. In this county are mines of lead and copper. It is divided into seven hundreds, has five market-towns, or boroughs, which jointly send one member to parliament, and has forty-seven parishes, which are divided between the three bishoprics of St. Asaph, Bangor, and Hereford.

The market-towns are Llanidlos, Llanvilling, Machynleth, Montgomery, and Welshpool.

Llanvilling is a good town of some note, and a

market for cattle, corn, and wool. Montgomery, 169 miles from London, was made a borough by Henry III.; it stands in a pleasant vale near the Severn, and is a large town with a county jail. Welshpool has a good manufacture for flannel.

This was also part of the territories of the Ardovices.

Pembrokeshire is the south-west extremity of Wales, is bounded east by Caermarthenshire; north-east by Cardiganshire; and is surrounded on all other sides by the Irish sea. The chief rivers are the Towey, the Clithy, and the Dangledye. The former has been noted. The Clithy rises near Newport, and falls into the Dangledye, which river rises near St. David's, and passing by Haverfordwest, falls into Milford Haven.

The air of this county is very healthy, and the soil fruitful. The county abounds with cattle, and has great plenty of coal in the bowels of the earth. It is divided into seven hundreds and 145 parishes, all in the diocese of St. David's, has one city, one borough, and six market-towns.

The city is St. David's, very ancient, having been erected into an episcopal see in the reign of King Arthur; it stands on a promontory, which projects into the Irish sea, and is called St. David's Head. It has been considerable, but is now so much deserted that it has not even a market. The cathedral is a venerable structure, the east end much out of repair. From St. David's Head the coast of Ireland may be discerned on a clear day. About a league from St. David's Head is an island called Ramsay.

The borough of Haverfordwest, 248 miles from London, is a county of itself, and is a well-built, populous town. Here is a county jail, and a considerable trade carried on.

The

The other market-towns are Fishguard, Kilgarran, Newport, Pembroke, Tenby, and Whiston.

Fishguard has a good harbour, and a trade in herrings. Kilgarran has only a harbour for boats, and a salmon fishery. Newport is a poor place, and chiefly supported by passengers to and from Ireland.

Pembroke is situated on a creek of Milford Haven, which divides into two branches, and the town is between them, having a bridge over each. Pembroke is one of the pleasantest towns in Wales; it is well inhabited, has good houses, and a large number of ships belonging to the town carry on a considerable trade.

Milford Haven is the best harbour in Great Britain, and as safe and spacious as any in Europe. It has no less than sixteen creeks, five bays, and thirteen roads, in which 1000 sail of ships may ride in safety. The entrance is easy, and the tide rises from twenty-six to thirty-six feet.

Tenby is a neat town, has a good road for ships, and a large fishery.

This was part of the country of the Dimetæ.

Radnorshire has Montgomeryshire on the north; Shropshire and Herefordshire on the east; Cardiganshire on the west; and Brecknockshire on the south.

The rivers are the Wye, the Teme, and the Ithon. The latter rises in the north extremity of the county, and joins the Wye near Builth.

The air is cold, the soil but indifferent in the northern parts. Radnorshire is divided into six hundreds and fifty-two parishes, which are partly subject to the diocese of St. David's, and partly to that of Hereford. It has one borough and two market-towns.

Radnor, the market-town, called also New Rad-

nor, 165 miles from London, is an ancient borough by prescription, but was chartered by Queen Elizabeth, containing eleven townships, and a jurisdiction extending twelve miles.

Knighton is a place of great resort, and has a good market in cattle, corn, iron ware, hops, salt, linen and woollen cloths.

Presteign is the place where the assizes are held, and the county jail stands. It is well built, and has a good market.

The Silures inhabited this county.

CHAP. XLIV.—*Of the Countries in Europe subject to the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.*

Although it is not the intention of this work to give a geographical account of any part of the British empire except England; yet it may be of service to our young readers to know what other countries are united under the same government with their native land, and which all together form what is now called the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.*

These then are, the island of Great Britain, comprehending the two kingdoms of England and Scotland;

The island of Ireland;

The island of Man; and

The small islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, on the coast of France. All these are now subject and liable to the laws of the king and parliament of the United Kingdom.

England has been already described.

Scotland is in length about 300 and in breadth about 150 miles, lies between the fifty-fourth and fifty-ninth degrees of north latitude, and is surrounded by several clusters of small islands, known by

by the names of the Orkney, Shetland, and Western islands.

It is divided into thirty-three counties, twenty-seven of which send each a member to parliament, and the other six send three members, two of them electing one member alternately. Scotland also sends fifteen members to parliament for the royal burghs. The peers of Scotland elect sixteen of their number to represent them in the united parliament. The surrounding islands are deemed to form parts of Scottish counties.

Ireland is situated to the west of England, between fifty-one and fifty-five degrees of north latitude, and between six and ten degrees of west longitude. Its greatest length is about 285 miles, and its greatest breadth about 160.

Ireland is divided into four provinces, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster; and these are again subdivided into counties, of which Leinster contains twelve; Ulster, nine; Connaught, five; and Munster, six; making in the whole thirty-two counties, each of which send two representatives to the united parliament. The number of representatives sent by the cities and boroughs are thirty-two; viz. for the city of Dublin, two; for the city of Cork, two; one for the University of Dublin; and thirty-one for the principal cities and boroughs, making in the whole 100 members. The peers of Ireland elect from their own body twenty-eight peers to represent them in the united parliament; and of the ecclesiastical lords, four of them attend the united parliament by rotation of session.

The isle of Man is a small island, lying about half way between England and Ireland.

Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark are four small islands lying close in with the coast of France; they were part of the dominions of our Norman

 kings,

kings; and although Normandy has been lost to the British throne for many centuries, yet these islands have remained firmly attached to England. These four islands send no representative to parliament, and are not deemed to be bound by any act of the British legislature, unless particularly named in such act.

END OF PART I.

THE

YOUNG ENGLISHMAN's

MANUAL.

PART II.

OF THE CONSTITUTION, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, REVENUE, ECCLESIASTICAL, CIVIL, AND MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS OF ENGLAND.

CHAP. I.—*Introduction.*

HAVING given a geographical and topographical sketch of England, it remains to proceed to a review of the constitution, laws, and government; but to fix in the mind of the young reader, such ideas as will enable him to gain a clear and comprehensive knowledge of the ensuing Part, it will be necessary to point out to him the various distinctions of government, with the essential characteristic of each;—to give him a distinct explanation of the words Constitution, Law, and Government;—and to sketch the outlines of the feudal system, on which the constitution of this country is founded.

Governments, or rather Constitutions, are classed according to the manner in which the legislative power is exercised therein, whether by one person, a few, or many.

When

When the legislative power is vested in one person, whether emperor, king, or by whatever name he may be called, it is termed an absolute monarchy, as are the constitutions of China, Russia, Denmark, &c.

When this power is vested in a select number of persons, usually the nobility of the country, it is styled an aristocracy, as in Venice and Genoa, before the late revolutions.

But if the power of making laws is retained by the people at large, and exercised by them or their representatives, it is denominated a democracy; such is the present government of the United States of America.

When any two of these states are combined in the exercise of the legislative authority, it is called a mixed constitution; and such is the constitution of England; which partakes of all three, and in which the powers of the king, the nobles, and the commons, are supposed to be so judiciously balanced as to enjoy the advantages of all, and to be free from many of the inconveniencies which attend either when executed separately.

The words Constitution, Law, and Government, are in general used with so little discrimination, and are often so applied and confounded with each other, that if the clear and precise meaning in which the author intends to apply them is not fully explained, much confusion will unavoidably ensue.

When therefore the word *constitution* is used, he invariably means that form which is annexed to the act of legislation.

By *law*, he always means those acts which emanate from the legislature, or which are confirmed by it.

And by *government* he intends exclusively, the exercise of the executive power in the state.

In these definitions of terms the author conceives

ceives himself to be fully justified, and which, if closely attended to in political disputes, would frequently be the means of avoiding much useless debate.

Of the feudal system it is absolutely necessary to speak, as the constitution of England, as well as that of most of the other states of Europe, was founded on that system.

When the northern nations emigrated from their barren homes, and broke like a torrent over the provinces of the Roman empire, they unavoidably adopted such a system of discipline and subordination as military operations require; and when they had succeeded in establishing themselves in their conquest, they adopted for the defence of their new acquisition such a system of subordination as was necessary for their security.

Under a chief and subordinate officers they had fought and conquered; and the idea of distributing lands among the people that had conquered, on condition of defending them, or, as the term afterwards applied to this species of tenure, "of holding them by military service," was very simple and judicious.

Under the chief and officers with whom they had conquered, they submitted to be governed; and although such chief was at first elective, yet as the possession of power generally enables the possessor to secure himself therein, so these chiefs in a short time became hereditary princes; and the disposal of the lands, as they reverted to the public by the death of the possessors, came into their hands. How such portions of land, or fiefs, as they were called, were regulated in this country will be hereafter seen.

The possessors of these fiefs held them at first only for life; but in process of time they also, like their chief, acquired an hereditary title to them.

From the chiefs, therefore, of the invading nations are descended the monarchs of many of the kingdoms of Europe; and the present sovereign of these kingdoms can trace his genealogy back to one of the Saxon leaders who landed in this kingdom in the sixth century. From the subordinate chieftains of the same invaders are sprung the present nobility of Europe, in the manner as will be hereafter explained.

The feudal system regarding only the warrior; the conquered, and those who did not bear arms, seem to have been little provided for. In many of the kingdoms of Europe their descendants remain slaves, and attached to the soil of their masters to this very day. Indeed, before the late revolutions on the continent, England and her dependencies were almost the only countries of Europe in which that class of men had obtained a complete emancipation.

Chap. II.—*Of the Divisions of England—Civil—Ecclesiastical—and Legal.*

Previously to entering into a view of the constitution, laws, and government of England, it seems necessary to afford the reader a knowledge of the divisions formed in that kingdom for its government, and which will in general be found admirably adapted to the purposes for which they were intended.

Britain, when invaded by Cæsar, was parcelled out into many tribes, an inquiry into whose respective situations is not material to our present purpose. The same may be said of those divisions which existed under the Roman government; but of such as were introduced by our Saxon ancestors, it will be requisite to take notice, as many of them, with

with some small variation in names and boundaries, exist to this day.

Civil Division.—Under the feudal law, each superior was the military leader of his own dependants; but when such dependants were inconsiderable, different heads of families connected by local circumstances, were associated together; and thus the inhabitants came to be distributed into societies of about ten heads of families, which received the names of tithings, vills, or towns, these terms having the same signification in law.

It was found more convenient to form these towns or tithings into more extensive connexions with each other, and ten of them were joined in a larger division, which, from the number of heads of families, obtained the appellation of hundred.

Such associations were in time still further extended, and a number of contiguous hundreds formed a larger and more extended division called by the Saxon *shire*.

In some places a smaller number of hundreds were associated, so as to form intermediate divisions, called in some shires, as in Kent, a *lathe*; in Sussex, a *rape*; and in Yorkshire, a *trithing*, now corrupted into *riding*. Of these intermediate districts, a certain number formed a shire. Thus the tithing or vill, under their *tithingman* or *headborough*; the hundred, under the *hundreder*, now called a *high constable*; and the shires, under an officer called first an *heretoch*, and afterwards an *earl* or *alderman*, formed an admirable distribution, equally fitted for civil or military government.

Although these divisions seem fixed on a decimal proportion, yet neither history nor the present state of that division authorizes us to conclude, that our ancestors never deviated from that rule, but only

that they conformed themselves as nearly thereto as circumstances would permit.

As the Normans were subject to the feudal law, and as such division of the country was admirably calculated to assist those laws, they made but little alteration in this distribution of the country; the hundred being only changed into a barony, and the Saxon shire into a Norman county. Of these shires or counties (for the words are now used indiscriminately) there are forty in England and twelve in Wales, whose extent and relative situations have been explained.

It may be necessary to observe, that under the government of the Saxons in England, Cornwall, Wales, and Cumberland, were enabled to resist the terror of their arms, and the two last were not made subject to the laws of England till after the Norman conquest *.

Ecclesiastical Division.—That Christianity was established in Britain under the Romans is certain; and we are told that in England and Wales there were then three archbishoprics and twenty-eight bishoprics. The conquest of the Saxons created great disorders in ecclesiastical affairs, and very many of the Christian churches were destroyed; but that the Christian religion was extirpated, is by no means true; for we find, from the testimony of Bede (lib. ii. c. 15), that the Christian and heathen worships were performed in the same church.

When the Saxon princes of the heptarchy embraced the Christian faith, the ecclesiastical power revived, and in process of time obtained a jurisdiction almost independent of the civil. The ecclesiastical division therefore, in many respects, differs

* See Millar's Historical View of the British Government, Blackstone's Commentaries, Wood's Institutes, &c.

differs from the civil. The smallest ecclesiastical distribution into parishes is very ancient; Camden says, as early as the year 630; but Mr. Selden has shown that the clergy lived in common long after that period, and that each man paid his tithe to what church or parish he pleased. This being found inconvenient, a law was made in the reign of king Edgar, directing that each person should pay his tenths to the parish to which he belonged.

The most probable opinion is, that parishes were settled by degrees, and that the boundaries of churches were adjusted by those of the manors; for it seldom happens that a manor extends over more parishes than one, although we find many manors in one parish. Judge Blackstone supposes that the lords built the church for the accommodation of their tenants, and required them to pay tithes to the minister of such church, and that the tract of land thus associated formed a distinct parish. As the lord had sometimes detached parcels of land which he annexed to his church; this circumstance will account for the frequent mixture of parishes one with another, and also for various parcels of land being extra-parochial, they having belonged to lords who for several reasons had not annexed them to any church.

As the communication between parishes opened, churchmen saw, or thought they saw, the necessity of an union; and hence arose different orders of men superior to the parish priest, the chief of which was the bishop, or person chosen to preside over a certain district; nor was this office found fully sufficient for the government of the church; and various intermediate officers acquired power in ecclesiastical affairs, till, by degrees, the territory of England became divided as under.

A certain number of parishes form a rural deanery; so many deaneries, an archdeaconry, of which there are about sixty; and one or more of these archdeaconries form a bishopric, the whole of which, in England, are divided into two provinces or archbishoprics; of which division the following will give as clear an idea as is requisite.

Subject

Subject to the Province of Canterbury are

The Bishoprics of	Whose Jurisdiction extends over the Counties of	Archdeaconries subject to each Bishopric.	No. of Parishes in each.
London	Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertford	London, Essex, Middlesex, Colchester, and St. Albans	623
Winchester . . .	Southampton, Surry, and the Islands of Jersey, Guernsey, &c.	Winchester and Surry	362
Chichester . . .	Sussex	Chichester and Lewes	250
Salisbury . . .	Wilts and Berks	Wilts, Sarum, and Berks	248
Exeter	Devon and Cornwall	Exeter, Totness, Barnstaple, Cornwall	604
Bath and Wells .	Somerset	Bath, Taunton, Wells	388
Gloucester . . .	Gloucester	Gloucester	267
Worcester . . .	Worcester and part of Warwick	Worcester	241
Hereford . . .	Hereford and part of Salop	Hereford and Salop	313
Lichfield and Coventry . . .	Stafford, Derby, part of Warwick and part of Salop	Stafford, Derby, Coventry, and Salop	557

The Bishoprics of	Whose Jurisdictions extend over the Counties of	Archdeaconries subject to each Bishopric.	No. of Parishes in each.
Lincoln	Lincoln, Leicester, Huntingdon, Bedford, Bucks, and part of Hertford	Lincoln, Leicester, Huntingdon, Bedford, Bucks, and Stow	1255
Ely	Cambridge	Ely	141
Norwich . . .	Norfolk and Suffolk	Norfolk, Norwich, Suffolk, and Sudbury	1121
Oxford	Oxford	Oxford	195
Peterborough	Northampton and Rutland	Northampton	293
Bristol	Dorset	Bristol	236
Rochester	Part of Kent	Rochester	98
Canterbury . . .	Other part of Kent	Canterbury	257
IN WALES.			
St. David's . . .	Pembroke, Caermarthen, Cardigan, Brecon, part of Glamorgan, and Montgomery	St. David, Caermarthen, Cardigan, and Brecon	308
Bangor	Anglesea, Caernarvon, Denbigh, part of Merioneth and Montgomery	Bangor, Anglesea, and Merioneth	107
Llandaff	Part of Merioneth and Glamorgan	Llandaff	177
St. Asaph . . .	Flint, part of Montgomery and Merioneth	St. Asaph	111
	In the Province of York are		
York	York and Nottingham	Cleveland, East Riding, Nottingham, and York	581
Durham . . .	Durham and Northumberland	Durham and Northumberland	135
Chester	Chester, Lancaster, and part of Cumberland	Chester and Richmond	256
Carlisle	Westmorland and part of Cumberland	Carlisle	90

The Isle of Man is also subject to the province of York.

Thus there are two provinces, twenty-six bishoprics, sixty archdeaconries, and between nine and ten thousand parishes. The numbers given above are from Camden, and amount only to 9284, but the parishes have been increased since.

Legal Division.—For the administration of justice, the kingdom of England, including Wales, is divided into ten circuits, six for the former, and four for the latter.

The English circuits are,

1. HOME, for the counties of Hertford, Essex, Kent, Surry, and Sussex.
2. NORFOLK, —— Bucks, Bedford, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Norfolk, and Suffolk.
3. OXFORD, —— Berks, Oxford, Worcester, Stafford, Salop, Hereford, Monmouth, and Gloucester.
4. MIDLAND, —— Northampton, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby, Leicester, and Warwick.
5. WESTERN, —— Hants, Wilts, Somerset, Dorset, Devon, and Cornwall.
6. NORTHERN, —— Yorkshire, Durham, Lancashire, Westmorland, Cumberland, and Northumberland.

Middlesex is not included in any of the circuits, as the courts of justice for civil causes are situated therein; and special commissions for criminal trials are issued eight times a year.

The Welsh circuits are,

1. CHESTER, for the counties of Chester, Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery.
2. NORTH WALES, —— Anglesea, Caernarvon, and Merioneth.
3. SOUTH EAST, —— Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorganshire.

4. SOUTH

4. South West, for the counties of Pembroke, Cardigan, and Caermarthen.

Chap. III.—*Historical View of the Constitution of England—Legislative Power, in whom vested.*

It has been the fate of England to have been successively subject to the dominion of the Romans, the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans: to the Saxons and Normans we are indebted for the basis of the constitution under which we now live, and many of the laws and customs by which we are now governed.

When the Britons, deserted by the Romans, and invaded by their northern neighbours, the Picts and Scots, called from Germany the Saxon bands to their aid; these allies, in a short period of time, became enemies; and after a long and bloody conflict, made a conquest of the southern parts of the island, erected seven independent kingdoms, and introduced the freedom of their Gothic constitution into England.

These hardy warriors disdained submission to laws dictated by a chief, and the power of legislation was vested in a great council of the nation, a practice which seems to have been general among the northern nations. Such council was denominated by the Saxons *michel synoth*; sometimes *michel gemot*, or the great meeting; and frequently *wittena gemot*, or meeting of the wise men. Under the heptarchy they met to treat of the affairs, and legislate for their respective kingdoms; and when the greater part of England was united under Egbert, this assembly, called in Latin *commune concilium*, met for the affairs of the whole kingdom. These councils continued under the Saxon and Danish monarchs, and the immortal Alfred ordained that

that they should meet once a year, or oftener if need be.

When William the Norman, by the defeat of Harold, acquired the sovereignty of England, he introduced the feudal system in its full severity; which, under the Saxons, had been greatly meliorated; yet could he never totally eradicate the Saxon constitution; and from the Conquest to the Revolution, the history of England exhibits a continued series of struggles of the nobles and people to recover from the king the liberties of which the Conqueror had deprived them. For, as an elegant and noble author observes*, "The liberties of "England are not the grants of princes. They "are original rights, conditions of original con- "tract, coequal with prerogative, and coeval with "government."

Yet did not the Norman princes presume to make laws without calling together persons of a certain degree, by whose assent they promulgated the laws necessary for the government of the people. Of whom this council was composed is uncertain; but there are proofs in our old law books of their being occasionally held under the first princes of the Norman line. These councils afterwards assumed the name of *parliaments*, a name which was not applied to them in the sense it now bears before the middle of the twelfth century.

The rigour of the feudal system established under William I. and continued under William II. was softened under the first Henry, who stood in need of the favour of the people to secure himself on the throne against the efforts of his elder brother. Stephen also, who ascended the throne contrary to the rule of hereditary succession, made

* Lord Bolingbroke.

some concessions in favour of the people; but under John, the spirit of liberty arose to such a height, that the king was compelled to sign Magna Charta, and to restore to the different ranks of people some portion of the liberties of which his ancestors had deprived them.

Judge Blackstone is of opinion that the constitution of parliament, nearly as it now stands, was marked out under the reign of this prince, who, A. D. 1215, promised to summon such a council to assess aids and scutages. It is however certain, that this constitution stands on record from the 49th year of King Henry III., as the writs calling the representatives of the people to parliament are still extant, and those writs bear strong internal evidence that it was not then a new institution. Since that period, the right of legislation has been fixed in the king, lords, and commons.

Although the precise time at which the representatives of the people were called to parliament is unknown, yet the motive which induced the monarchs to summon them, is confirmed by a variety of concurrent evidence. The whole of parliamentary business may be reduced to two general heads *, *advice* and *consent*; and it was an invariable maxim among all the Gothic nations, that the prince had no right to any services but what were purely *feudal*. Thus, when the king wanted *advice* he had a right to call on his barons to attend, as such attendance was a part of their feudal duty. When he wished to ask of them any aids or scutages, they only were called on to give their *consent* to such aid, because they only were to pay. But when, by the fluctuating state of human affairs, a body of men arose who had acquired property, and

* Lord Chancellor West on the Creation of Peers.

by

by reason of their residence in towns had become emancipated from the feudal law, to gain from them the aid the monarch required, their *consent* was also thought necessary, and that could only be procured by representation. From this motive, therefore, we may confidently assert, that the kings were at first induced to call on the various boroughs to send representatives to parliament. In proof of this position, that the *consent* of those who paid assessments was necessary, we find * 13th of Edward III. that the lords granted a tithe of all the corn growing on their demesnes, when the commons did not grant any thing. At other times the knights of the shire have united with the lords to grant a subsidy of one portion, and the representatives of the boroughs have at the same time by themselves granted a different portion †. Various summonses are also extant to persons to procure their consent in affairs which were national, but in which they were more immediately concerned. "If," says the learned Chancellor West, "this "equity was observed with respect to particular "persons, it is no wonder it should be judged ne- "cessary to consult the whole kingdom upon af- "fairs which were of general concern."

It has happened fortunately for the liberties of England, that although the king, nobles, and clergy, were all, in some degree, hostile to public liberty, yet they have all in their turns helped to establish it ‡. When the king wanted to curb the licentiousness of his barons, he courted the commons. When the barons found themselves too weak to contend with the monarch, they were sure

* Rot. Parl.

† 24th Edward I. the lords granted an eleventh, and the commons a seventh part of their moveables.

‡ Bolingbroke.

to

to call in the aid of the people; and the clergy, although for many reasons attached to the crown, have never failed to join either the lords or commons when their own interest was concerned. By these happy collisions of interests the people of England have preserved a greater portion of natural rights than any other nation in Europe. In one of those struggles, in the latter end of the reign of Edward I. the barons and representatives of the boroughs procured from the king his assent to the statute called *de tallagio non concedendo*, by which it was declared that no aid or tax should be levied without the consent of the archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, knights, and other free men; that is, by the joint consent of lords and commons. By this statute it appears, that the lords and commons gave up the right of taxing themselves separately; but still maintained the great point of not submitting to any tax or impost but by consent.

Under Edward I. the commons annexed petitions to the bills by which they granted subsidies, which was certainly a great assumption of legislative power; by these means compelling the king to assent to their petition, or to deprive himself of the aid of which he was in want. Under Henry IV. they absolutely refused subsidies until their petitions were assented to.

And the commons soon gained a further accession of power by exercising the right of impeachment.

By these circumstances was the constitution of parliament settled on its present basis; but it is a singular circumstance that we are not in possession of any record or historical fact to ascertain the time when the lords and commons began to sit in two distinct houses, and to form two distinct assemblies. The parliament in early times consisted of three

three orders of men—the barons, the representatives of the people, and the clergy; but the representatives for the counties, or knights of the shire, commonly sat with the barons, as having the same origin with them, and generally granted the same proportion of their goods; while the representatives of the cities and boroughs granted such a portion of their moveables as they thought proper; and the clergy also granted their own money in different proportions from the laity. Dr. Henry is of opinion that the custom of meeting in two separate chambers was introduced almost insensibly, otherwise so important an operation could not possibly have escaped the notice of historians.

However, for some centuries we find the legislative power in England exercised by, and acknowledged to be in the parliament, consisting of a king, a house of lords, and a house of commons, whose various and distinct powers, privileges, and immunities will be the subjects of the ensuing chapters.

Many powers and privileges have at various times been claimed and asserted as constitutional; but it was not until the Revolution of 1688 that these claims were collected together and solemnly acknowledged. Then (to use the words of a modern historian*) the maxim of hereditary, indefeasible right in the crown was renounced; the power of the crown was acknowledged to flow from no other fountain than that of the people; the representatives of the people made a regular claim of rights on behalf of their constituents; and William III. ascended the throne in consequence of an express stipulation with the people; which claims were expressed in the celebrated Bill of Rights.

The death of king William III. without issue

* Dr. Smollett.

rendered

rendered another settlement of the crown necessary; and in the act which secured the throne to the princess Sophia of Hanover and her issue, the lords and commons were not inattentive to the liberties of the people. By this law, called the Act of Settlement, it was enacted, (clause iii. sect. 1.) That the future possessor of the crown should be of the communion of the church of England; (sect. 3.) and should not go out of England without consent of parliament; (sect. 4.) That all things for the well governing of the kingdom, properly cognizable in the privy council, should be transacted there, and all resolutions signed by such of the council as should assent thereto; (sect. 6.) That no person holding office or place of profit under the king, or receiving a pension from the crown, should be a member of the house of commons. (Clause iv.) That judges should hold their commissions so long as they should behave themselves well; and (clause v.) That no pardon under the great seal of England should be pleadable to an impeachment of the commons in parliament.—Of these excellent regulations those of sect. 3. and 6. are repealed, and that in sect. 4. is either repealed or fallen into disuse.

Chap. IV.—*Of the Parliament of England—Its Power.*

The power invested in parliament by the constitution of England is very extensive; it has uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding laws, concerning all matters ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place where that supreme legislative power, which in all governments must somewhere exist, is intrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All grievances, operations, and

and remedies that transcend the ordinary course of the law, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate the succession to the crown, and has a power to alter or amend the constitution of parliament itself.—Such are the powers vested in this high tribunal, as laid down by our great lawyers *.

Parliament hath its own laws; and it is a rule, that whatever matter arises concerning either house of parliament, ought to be examined, discussed, and adjudged in that house to which it relates, and not elsewhere. So that the lords will not suffer the commons to interfere in settling the election of a peer of Scotland, nor will the commons permit the peers to interfere in any dispute respecting any election to the house of commons. The law and custom of parliament hath its origin from this maxim—That whatever arises concerning either house of parliament, ought to be examined, discussed, and adjudged in the house to which it relates, and no where else.

This law evidently arises from the principle, that the various branches of the legislature should be kept distinct and independent of each other, so that neither house should be able to control the operations of the other; and that the members of both the houses might be kept free and independent of any coercion of the king, it is declared (Stat. 2 William and Mary, c. ii.), that freedom of speech ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament.

For the protection of the members of the two houses of parliament, it is declared that any violence offered to them or their menial servants is a

* Blackstone, and various others.

high contempt, and may be punished in parliament with severity.

The continuance of a parliament, by act of George I. is limited to seven years.

As the parliament in its aggregate capacity has certain laws, powers, and privileges, so has each constituent part of parliament its separate and distinct powers, privileges, and exemptions; and first of the

Chap. V.—*Legislative Power of the King.*

The legislative power of the king of England consists in calling, proroguing, and dissolving parliament, and in giving his assent to bills.

A parliament could regularly be summoned or called only by the king's writ or letter issued out of chancery by advice of the privy council, at least forty days before it begins to sit, except in cases wherein the king shall judge proper to exercise the power vested in him by a modern statute, of calling out the militia of the kingdom; and in that case he might summon the parliament to meet in fourteen days: but by a late statute, the king has a general power of calling parliament together in fourteen days notice.

But in case of the demise of the king, if there be no parliament in being, the last parliament revives, and is to sit six months, unless dissolved by the successor.

By ancient statutes the king was bound to call a parliament every year, or oftener *if need be*; by virtue of these last words those monarchs, who wished to govern without parliaments, neglected to convoke them; till by statute of William and Mary, it was enacted that a new parliament must be called within three years after the determination of the former.

The necessity of renewing the bills for the support of the army and navy, makes it usual for a parliament now to sit every year.

On the day on which the parliament is directed by the king's writ to assemble, the monarch goes in state to the house of peers, where being seated on the throne, he sends to the house of commons requiring their attendance. The house of commons appearing at the bar of the lords' house, the king in a speech from the throne, stating the principal subject for which they were convened, opens the parliament. After this the king retires, as do the commons to their own house, and the lords and commons proceed to business.

The king is also invested with a power to prorogue parliament, or direct them to suspend their meeting. In this case all bills brought before them and not completed are null and void.

He has also the power of dissolving parliament even before the time fixed by the law for its duration shall expire.

In case of a dissolution of parliament, the commons must be chosen anew, which in case of a prorogation only, they are not, the old representatives again assembling.

The king's assent is necessary to make a law complete; and this is given either in person or by representatives: in the latter case it is called giving the royal assent by commission.

The king of England in his legislative capacity is head of the parliament; he alone, as we have seen, can give it existence; but he enjoys only a power to reject laws, and not to form them, that being the peculiar privilege of the other two branches of the legislature.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.—*Of the House of Lords or Peers—How composed—Manner of creating them—Their legislative Power and Privileges.*

The second branch of the legislative power is vested in the house of lords, which is composed of the lords spiritual and temporal.

The lords spiritual consist of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops of England, and four for Ireland. All these hold, or are supposed to hold, baronies of the king; and in right of succession to those baronies, which are annexed to their respective dignities, they are allowed seats in the house of lords. Before the dissolution of the monasteries, the mitred abbots, who also held baronies, had the same privileges.

The spiritual lords are, in the eye of the law, distinct from the temporal, but intermix in their votes; and if a bill should pass with every spiritual lord against it, it still would be valid.

The election of the spiritual lords forms a part of the ecclesiastical economy of the kingdom, and will be described under that head.

The temporal peers consist of an indefinite number *. As the king owes his elevation to the operation of the feudal system, to the same system were the peers indebted for their honours. As the chief of the conquering people received a large portion of the conquered lands, so were his companions gratified with certain portions for their own use. These were afterwards denominated *fiefs*, and in process of time became hereditary: the possessors of which, during the Saxon times, were styled thanes, and by the Normans, barons. As the chief or king had a right to summon the possessors of these fiefs to give him advice on any important

* West on Creation of Peers.

affair; so did the possession of those fiefs give a title to admission into the national councils; and until the latter end of the reign of Henry III. this was the only one, the barons being all feudal. Henry III. first created barons by writ, by which he had it in his power to exclude such of the lesser landholders as he chose, and this without any murmuring on their parts, as parliamentary attendance was then esteemed a burden. This method of proceeding continued until the 11th of Richard II. who first created barons by patent.

To elucidate this subject, it is necessary to explain the meaning of the word peer, and likewise what constitutes a barony.

The word peers is altogether feudal, signifying anciently men of equal rank, and as such it is used in Magna Charta. The word baron also was used in former times to signify any freeman, and the barons of the cinque ports retain this title to the present day. The true sense of the word is also feudal. Peer and baron are, therefore, in some degree synonymous terms. All the tenants of the king were styled his vassals; but in process of time the word baron came to be applied only to the *chief* military tenants of the king, holding of him *in capite*, who, by a reservation of some particular service, were said to hold by barony.

Barons by tenure were introduced by the Normans at the conquest. William granted the forfeited estates to his followers, and the services reserved are the foundation of baronage, introduced by mutual consent of the grantor and grantee in parliament. The king could never after increase the number of these baronies, but could the number of barons; for if a person died without heirs, possessed of more baronies than one, the king might grant them again to separate persons.

The

The barons, or tenants *per baroniam*, were not many. In the time of Henry III. when he summoned them to attend him against the Welsh, they consisted only of 133 temporal and fifty spiritual, each of which had a right to be summoned to parliament. But in time, many of them grew weary of the trouble and expense of attending; and the barons of the ancient foundation thinking to aggrandize themselves by excluding the grantees of the escheated baronies, procured a law that only the greater barons should be summoned for the future.

This was the origin of barons by *writ*; and Henry II., after the defeat of the barons at Evesham, procured a law that none should have a voice in parliament, but only those to whom he should send his writ of summons: the consequences of which were, that the excluded barons soon mixed with the commons of their respective counties, and in process of time the term *baron* came to be appropriated only to those who were summoned to parliament. The tenure by barony, however, still existed; and the king might renew the right of sitting in parliament by his writ.

From this time, no baron appeared in parliament who was not summoned, which the king extended to other persons who did not hold by barony. The writ of summons, in operation of law, did not afford them a right to sit in parliament, or convey any hereditary honours. Writs of summons also were, and are to this day, directed to the eldest son of those whose fathers are of a rank superior to a barony, by the title of their father's barony, and they take their seats in the house according to the date of that creation. But the eldest son of a baron cannot be summoned by writ, unless his father

father possesses two baronies, and then he is summoned by the junior title.

As this power in the king enabled him to neglect those whose presence he did not much wish for, the chief barons sought some method to lay the king under a necessity of summoning them to parliament; and this is supposed by some to have been the origin of barons by patent.

Of the five orders or titles of nobility now existing, earldoms and baronies only are of feudal origin; for it must be observed that a tenure *per comitiam* is also a tenure *per baroniam*. An earldom was originally officiary and feudal; his office was to be conservator of the peace for the county: and as baron and barony, so count (or earl) and county were not only co-relative terms but things; nor could one properly subsist without the other. When the kings, therefore, began to grant patents, securing to certain peers their summons to parliament, they did it with a sparing hand; there being few patents of peerage antecedent to the 11th of Edw. III., all which are of feudal earldoms; for as yet no patents for baronies had been granted; and all these patents, or at least the greater part of them, were confirmed to parliament. Richard II. created his uncle Thomas of Woodstock a peer in the first year of his reign, without consulting parliament; and in the fourteenth, a new patent was passed in parliament.

Henry IV. assumed a power of granting patents of peerage without parliament; but one of these was to his brother, and the other to his son. Henry V.'s patents were all with consent of parliament, except a patent of restitution to the earl of Northumberland, and another of the feudal county of Richmond. Henry VI.'s patents are most of them said

said to be by authority of parliament. Now as patents of earldom, which was only an advance in the peerage, were passed with consent of parliament, there is every reason to think that those of baronies, which were a new creation, were so. Of these patents for baronies fifteen only were created before the 1st of Henry VII., and they were all passed *per breve de privato sigillo et de authoritate parliamenti*, and consequently they all had the force of acts of parliament; and in every one of these patents there are words which either directly or indirectly give a right to demand a writ of summons to all future parliaments. Since the middle of the reign of Henry VIII. every patent has contained a clause recognising such right. Henry VII. and VIII., and Elizabeth and Mary, gained some ground on their subjects, and enlarged their prerogative. However, it is evident that patents of peerage originated with the crown, and were confirmed in parliament, or by the peers in parliament. For although the commons cannot interfere in any point respecting the peerage, yet it is still a custom for the patents of peerage to be read in the house of lords before the patentee is admitted, and such admission gives a consent to their creation, and favours an opinion that the house still retains a power of rejection. No such power, however, has been exercised for a great length of time; although during the present reign a motion was made opposing the admission of a peer bringing the king's patent; the motion was rejected, but no impeachment of the right was advanced.

Thus we see there have been three roads to admission into the house of peers; by tenure, by writ, and by patent. The title of barons by tenure was essentially curtailed by the introduction of

barons by writ, and the creation of barons by patent has nearly superseded those by writ.

Since the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, sixteen peers have been introduced into the house by election, a mode until then unknown. By virtue of the act of union the peers of Scotland are empowered to elect sixteen peers to represent them in parliament, which election is made at Holyrood-house, at Edinburgh, and the period for which they are elected is co-equal with the house of commons, that is, for seven years; unless the parliament shall be sooner dissolved by virtue of the king's prerogative. And by the act of union with Ireland, the peers of Ireland are empowered to elect twenty-eight peers to represent them in the united parliament; and of the ecclesiastical peers of Ireland, four of them sit in the united parliament by rotation of session.

It is to be observed, that although there are five titles of peerage, viz. dukes and marquisses, earls, viscounts, and barons, yet they all sit as barons, and are all peers of each other.

The number of the temporal lords, including the Scots peers, are now nearly three hundred, most, if not all, of whom, have their patents limited to the heirs male: but those few who hold baronies by tenure, may be succeeded by the heirs general.

The peers in their legislative capacity have a right to assent to or dissent from any bill that shall be brought before them from the house of commons; and no bill can pass into a law until it has been assented to by a majority of that house.

They may also introduce any bill in their house except those which are called money bills; and all bills which in any way respect the peerage *must* originate in their house.

They have a right to alter any bill sent up to them

them from the commons, except those which in the language of parliament are called money bills, that is, such as levy money by any means on the subject; and such they must pass in the same form in which they are sent up to them, or reject. The peers, on the other hand, will not permit the commons to originate or alter any bill that respects the peerage.

The privileges of the peers both in their collective and individual capacity are many. The house of peers are hereditary counsellors of the crown, and may be called together by the king for their advice in matters of importance; but this custom, as parliament now meet regularly every year, is fallen into disuse; however, by virtue of this privilege of counsellors to the crown, each peer has a right to demand an audience of the king, and to lay before him with decency such matters as he shall judge of importance to the public welfare.

The house of peers also act in a judiciary capacity; they are the last resort of the subject who thinks himself aggrieved by the determination of the inferior courts, and to them he may appeal either by writ of error or by petition.

The house has a right to be attended by the judges of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, the barons of the exchequer, the king's sergeants at law, and the masters in chancery, to have their advice in points of law.

Each peer, as a lord of parliament, may introduce any bill without asking leave of the house—has also the privilege of voting by proxy: and if he disapproves of any vote of the house, he may enter a protest against it, assigning his reason for dissent.

In case any criminal accusation is preferred against a peer, he has a right to be tried by his

peers, who are formed into a court for that trial, at the head of which a lord steward presides appointed by the king for that purpose. Peeresses in their own right, and the wives and widows of peers, have the same privilege; but this is said not to extend to bishops.

Peers had formerly various privileges; but these being found inconvenient, all that derogate from the common law, are now at an end; except in the freedom of their own persons, which are still held inviolable.

The exceptions to privilege are in case of treason, felony, and breach of the peace; and in any of these cases, the cause of the arrest should be sent to the house previously to the person being taken into custody.

When a peer sits in judgment, he does not give his verdict on oath, like other jurymen, but upon honour; they are also allowed to answer upon their honour to a bill in chancery: but if they are examined as witnesses in civil or criminal cases, they must submit to be sworn.

Peers have also the privilege of franking letters, which, until a late session, was without limitation; but by an act then passed was confined to a certain number of letters per day.

Scandal propagated against a peer is deemed *scandalum magnatum*, and is subject to peculiar punishment by several ancient statutes.

A peer cannot lose his nobility but by death or attainder.

By a standing order of the house of lords the heralds are to keep exact accounts of all peers and peeresses, and their descendants, in order to preserve exact pedigrees of every peer, and regulate their succession.

No peer can take his seat in the house until he has

has attained the age of twenty-one years, and has taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy.

The house of lords have a set of rules or orders to regulate the proceedings of the house, of its officers, and of persons attending on, or having business with them, which are printed, and called the standing orders of the house.

In ordinary business the house of lords or peers have a speaker, appointed by the king, who presides and puts all questions; this office is generally conferred on the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great seal. When the peers sit on a trial of a peer, a lord steward is appointed for that purpose by the king. When they sit for the trial of an impeachment from the commons, the chancellor presides. When the house forms itself into a committee, they choose a chairman.

The house of peers have an officer called clerk of the parliament, who registers, by himself or deputy, all their proceedings: they have also an officer, called usher of the black rod, whose business it is to keep order, and take into custody any person offending against the rules of the house.

Chap. VII.—*Of the House of Commons—How chosen—Its legislative Power—And Privileges.*

It is a singular circumstance in the history of the constitution of this country, that of two of the most important changes which have taken place therein—the introduction of the representatives of the people into the legislative council, and the division of the two houses as we now find them—there is no satisfactory historical record.

Of the latter, the opinion of Dr. Henry has been given; and with respect to the first introduction of the commons, although it is a matter which has been much agitated, yet apparently with very

 little

little judgment on either side; for let the point be settled how it may, it is evident that they were called to the great council as soon as the king had occasion to require money of them; a position which fully establishes their right to a share in the legislation, at least as far as the granting of aids extends, whether they were called yesterday or many centuries past.

Deprived thus of historical evidence as to the first rise of the representatives of the people, we may however observe that by the exclusion of the minor barons from parliament, a large and respectable body of men, and possessors of considerable property, lost their voice in the national council; and as these men had means in their hands, we have great reason to doubt whether they ever submitted to pay aids or subsidies but by their own consent. We may therefore rationally conclude, that whenever the king found it necessary to ask supplies from them, he also found it necessary to call for the attendance of their representatives in the parliament to give their assent. Here therefore we have a clear *constitutional* reason for the introduction of representatives from the freeholders, or of those representatives we now call knights of the shire, which at present is settled at two knights for each county in England; but we find that precise number has not been strictly adhered to, and that in some of the ancient parliaments one only has been summoned.

In early ages the landholders of England, as well as of all other countries, lived on their estates, the possessor surrounded by his tenants and family, and each family consequently at a distance from their neighbour, in proportion to the extent of the estate. In process of time, as manufactures and commerce were introduced, a large portion of the people,

people, who pursued those two branches of industry, assembled together in one spot; and hence arose small villages, which in time increased to towns and to cities. The wealth which commerce never fails to procure, settled in these towns, and became an object of the monarch's attention; to enjoy a portion of which, it became necessary to grant them also the right of representation, in order to gain such a share of the profits of their industry as they could spare. From this circumstance we may justly conclude the right of the boroughs and cities to send their representatives to parliament arose; from most of which two representatives have been sent, and the city of London has from time immemorial sent four.

Here we may observe, what by some are conceived two very capital defects in the original representation of the commons; for by summoning an equal number of representatives for each shire, the small county of Rutland sending as many members as the extensive county of York, or the rich county of Middlesex. This defect in the county representation was certainly soon discovered; for we find that in the representation of the Welsh counties, those being small, are only allowed to send one member. Secondly, that an equal disproportion is to be found in the representation of cities and boroughs; to make the cause of which appear, it is necessary to take a view of the rise of incorporations.

All the lands of the kingdom, as has been observed, were divided between the king and his barons; consequently the towns which sprang up, must be on the estates of one or the other. In the infancy of trade and commerce some bond of union was, or was supposed to be, necessary for the welfare or prosperity of the town; and the lords procured from the king such incorporation (or charters,

as they are called) for the towns on their estates, as was deemed necessary; and by such incorporation the towns arose to the rank of boroughs. This will account for the great influence the lords still retain in those boroughs which remain in their hands. By degrees, as these boroughs arose to such permanent consequence as to be taxed, the lords procured them to be admitted to a share in the legislature.

The greater part of the boroughs of England were however on the lands or demesnes of the crown; and wherever we find the mayor, &c. chosen by a jury in a court leet, or court baron, these were ancient demesnes of the crown, although alienated. As the king granted advantageous charters of incorporation to the boroughs of his barons, so likewise he did to the towns on his own lands, and that with a more liberal hand; which may account for the large portion of boroughs in the county of Cornwall, that county being more immediately connected with the crown. These too, when competent to be taxed, had writs directed to them to send representatives to parliament. Such is the origin of the right of boroughs by charter.

The sheriffs of the counties had anciently the discretionary power to send their precepts for the election of members to such of the king's towns as exercised trade under the royal protection; by which means many towns had writs sent them who had no charter of incorporation; but by a continued exercise of such privilege for a great length of time, they claimed it as a right: and such is the origin of boroughs by prescription.

Here, in the representation of the boroughs we find the same defect as in that of the counties: no distinction is made in the number of representatives, as the boroughs of Sarum and Gatton send

as many members as the rich cities of Westminster and Bristol. Besides, the privileges being granted in times of feudal oppression, that boon was imparted principally to such towns as were more immediately under royal influence; and the right of voting was confined, so as more immediately to second such influence.

In this manner, however, the house of commons was constituted; we shall next proceed to say in what it now consists.

The commons of England are composed of the representatives of the people, or of such part of the people as by law or custom have a right to vote. All these representatives are indiscriminately called members of parliament, or members of the house of commons, but have also other names of distinction according to the rank of the places they represent.

Thus, the representatives of counties or shires are called knights of the shire; and in the old feudal times, knights only could be returned. Those of the cities are called citizens, and those of boroughs, burgesses.

The number of members are limited, and consist of

Knights of the shire for 40 counties in England, 2 each - - -	80
Ditto for 12 counties in Wales, 1 each	12
Citizens and burgesses, of which 4 are sent for the city of London, 1 each for Bewdley, Banbury, Higham Ferrers, and the Welsh boroughs, and 2 for the other cities and boroughs - - -	421
For England and Wales	513

But on the union of England and Scotland forty-five members were admitted into the parliament of Great

Great Britain to represent that country; that is, one to represent each county, or, where the counties are small, one to represent two counties; and one to represent certain royal burghs or boroughs in each county; making the whole number of the commons five hundred and fifty-eight; to which number, by the act of union, the representatives are indirectly limited. But by the act of union with Ireland, that country is allowed to send one hundred members to the house of commons, viz. two for each of the counties, two for each of the cities of Dublin and Cork, one for the university of Dublin, and one for thirty-one of the principal cities and boroughs.

By the laws of England certain qualifications are required, to enable a man to be an elector or elected.

To be an elector for knight of the shire, a man must possess a freehold of the clear value of forty shillings a year within the county, and must have been in actual possession (except it came to him by descent, marriage, or promotion to an office or benefice) twelve months before the election.

To be an elector for a city, a man must be a citizen according to the custom of the place.

The right of election in boroughs is various, depending on the several charters, constitutions, and customs of the respective places; and such right is to be allowed according to the last determination of the house of commons thereon.

To be qualified to be elected, a man must be a natural-born subject, and of the full age of twenty-one years, must not be a member of the house of lords, or of the clergy in priest's orders, nor returning officer of the place for which he is elected, nor holding certain places enumerated in several statutes.

Every

Every knight of the shire must have a clear estate, freehold or copyhold, of the yearly value of 600*l.* *per annum*; and every citizen and burgess a like estate of the value of 300*l.* *per annum*, except they be the eldest son of peers, or of persons qualified to be knights of the shire.

If any member accepts of an office under government (except a promotion in the army or navy), his seat is vacated thereby; but he may, if the appointment is not enumerated in the above-mentioned acts, be re-elected.

The method of proceedings at elections is regulated by customs, and various acts of parliament.

As soon as a parliament is summoned, the lord chancellor sends his warrant to the clerk of the crown in chancery, directing him to issue writs to the sheriff of each county for the election of members to serve for such county, and for every city and borough therein.

As the sheriff is returning officer for the county only, he must within three days send his precept, under seal, to the proper returning officer of the cities and boroughs, commanding them to return the members for such city, &c.

The returning officer must proceed to the election within eight days after the receipt of the precept, giving four days notice of the same, and must in due time make a return of the persons chosen, together with the precept, to the sheriff.

At the election of a knight of the shire the sheriff presides himself; and such election must be proceeded on at the next county court after the receipt of the writ: by a late statute he may summon a special court for that purpose. Such election must be held at the accustomed place, which cannot be altered but by consent of all the candidates.

To preserve the freedom of election, all soldiers quartered

quartered in the place must remove two miles from the place of election, at least one day before such election, and must not return until the day after.

No lord of parliament, or lord lieutenant of a county, hath any right to interfere in any election of the commons. No officer of the excise, customs, stamps, or other branches of the revenue, may intermeddle in any election, under the penalty of 100*l*., and being disabled from voting; and by an act of the present king, George III. all officers of the customs, excise, and other branches of the revenue, are prohibited from voting for members of parliament.

To prevent bribery at elections, no candidate, after the date, or *teste*, as it is called, of the writ, or after the vacancy happens, shall give any money or entertainment to the electors, or promise to give any, on pain of being rendered incapable of serving in that parliament.

Persons giving or offering any money or gift, or promising any money, gift, office, employment, or reward, or persons receiving any money, gift, or reward, shall forfeit for every such offence 500*l*.

When the elections are finished, the returning officer sends the precepts back to the sheriffs, with the names of the persons endorsed thereon, who have the majority of votes; and the sheriff returns the whole, with the writ for the county, to the clerk of the crown.

The privileges of the house of commons relate to the raising of money, and the election of members of their own house.

It is an indisputable right, that the grant of all subsidies or parliamentary aids whatsoever must begin in the house of commons, although those grants are not effectual until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. So jealous

jealous is the house of this privilege, that they will not assent to any alteration made by the other house in a money bill. In other respects their legislative power is the same as the house of lords.

The commons also reserve to themselves the sole right of judging of the election of their members, which is determined by a committee of fifteen chosen by ballot and lot, as directed by stat. 10 George III. c. 16. and amended by other acts.

The members of the house of commons are privileged from arrest for debt; and indeed in all cases, except treason, felony, or a breach of the peace: but this privilege in point of duration differs from that of the peers, as it expires a certain number of days after the prorogation of parliament, whereas that of the peers is perpetual. They have also the same privilege of franking as the house of lords.

No one can sit in the house of commons until he has completed his twenty-first year, nor until he has taken the oaths required by 30 George II. c. 2. and subsequent acts; nor can any alien, although naturalized, sit in that house.

The seat of a member may be vacated by acceptance of a place, and he may be expelled the house on proof being made of his being guilty of any crime.

The commons choose a speaker to preside, who must be approved of by the king*.

Chap. VIII.—*Of the Manner of making Laws.*

A statute, a law, or act of parliament, before it can be valid, must pass through the forms of both

* Blackstone, History of Boroughs, Millar's History of the English Government.

houses

houses of parliament, be assented to by them, and afterwards receive the king's assent.

All statutes or acts, before the king has given his assent, are called bills.

Bills are of three kinds; private, public, and money bills: and each of them are subject to different forms in passing through the houses.

To bring a private bill into the house, a petition signed by those who are interested in the proposed bill, must first be presented by a member. This petition is referred to several members, called a committee; generally named by the member who presents the petition. Such committee examine evidence as to the propriety of granting the petition: and if they make a favourable report to the house, an order is immediately made that a bill shall be drawn, which is presented and passes as other bills.

A public bill may be brought in on the motion of any member without petition, if such motion is seconded and approved of by the house of commons; and a committee is appointed to prepare and bring in the same.

There is this difference in the introduction of public bills into the two houses; that in the commons, the member's motion must be seconded, and approved by the house, before the bill can be introduced; but in the house of lords every peer has a right to introduce a bill ready drawn, without having his motion seconded, or without any reference to a committee. If a bill is brought into the lords' house by petition, it is referred to two judges to consider of the propriety of proceeding thereon.

Such is the distinction used in originating public and private bills; but there is another species of public bills which are brought into the house by a different

different process. All bills which grant to the king any supply by loan, or any other way whatsoever, are called money bills, and must be first introduced in the house of commons.

That house, at the beginning of the session, appoints two committees of the whole house, viz. a committee of supply, and a committee of ways and means; and in one of these committees every article of supply granted to the king, or of ways or means for raising such supply, must be first resolved on.

The committee make a report to the house of any resolutions they may have come to, and if approved of by the majority, an order is made for a bill to be drawn and brought in by certain members nominated for that purpose.

All bills are first drawn on various sheets of paper fastened together, with blanks left for such matters as the houses, or the committees of each house, are to determine.

When the bill is drawn, it is presented and read a first time as a matter of course, and the speaker puts the question if the bill shall be read a second; which, if agreed to, is done at a convenient distance of time. If the bill is of great importance, it is usual for some member to move to have it printed, which is generally complied with; except money bills, which by an old custom of the house are seldom if ever permitted to be printed.

When a bill is read a second time, a motion is made that it be committed; and if agreed to, it is sent to a committee accordingly.

Bills are committed two ways, either to a committee of the whole house, or to a committee appointed for that purpose. Public bills are always sent to the former, and private bills generally to the latter.

In

In the committee the bill is read clause by clause; the language, if necessary, is amended, the blanks are filled up, and any alteration that the committee thinks proper may be made.

After it has gone through the committee it is again considered by the house; this is on what is called the report, when every amendment is read to the house, and either agreed to or rejected: the bill is then ordered to be engrossed.

Engrossing a bill is writing it in an old law hand on long sheets of parchment, as many of them being fastened together as the length of the bill requires; and when this is done, it is presented to the house to be read a third time.

Even at this period of the bill any additional clause may be added; which, if agreed to, is done by what is called a *rider*; that is, the clause is likewise engrossed on parchment, and tacked to the bill; but such rider must likewise be read three times in each house.

The bill is then read a third time and passed, and sent to the other house for their assent. The bills from the house of commons are sent to the lords by a committee of seven of their members, one of whom presents the bill at the bar, notifies its title, and asks the consent of that house thereto. Bills from the lords are usually sent by two masters in chancery, who present them at the bar of the house of commons, and make the same request in the name of the house of lords.

The bill then goes through nearly the same forms of reading and committing as in the other house; and if it is agreed to, notice of such agreement is sent in the manner above mentioned to the house in which the bill originated; but if any alteration is made, it is then sent back, desiring the consent of that house to such amendment.

These

These amendments are considered by the said house, and if agreed to, the bill is ready for the royal assent; if not, it is usual to request a conference between committees of each house, at which the subject in dispute is generally adjusted.

When bills are ready for the royal assent they are deposited in the house of lords, until the king gives such assent, which is done either in person or by commission. A commission issues under the great seal, empowering the great officers of state, and certain peers therein named, or any three of them, to give the royal assent to the bills then ready, which is done in the following manner:

When the king has taken his seat on the throne, or the three acting commissioners their seats on the woolsacks in the house of lords, a message is sent by the sergeant at arms, requiring the attendance of the house of commons; these, with their speaker, being come to the bar, the ceremony proceeds.

Money bills are always first presented one by one, and the title of each is read; on which the clerk of the parliament, or his deputy, pronounces the assent in old Norman French, in these words: *Le roy remercie ses loyal subjets, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*—The king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and assents to the bill.

Public bills are next presented, and their titles read, the answer to which is always, *Le roy le veut*—The king assents; after which the private bills are presented, to which the answer given is, *Soit fait comme il est desiré*—Let it be as it is desired.

It must be observed that acts of grace are first signed by the king, and sent to the houses for their

their approbation;—and when any bill is brought into either house which affects the royal prerogative, it is usual, by application to the king, to know if it has his approbation, which is generally declared by some of the ministers to the houses before they order in the bill. This is done, not only in compliment to the monarch, but also to save trouble, as it would be useless to proceed unless they were assured of the royal assent.

The moment the king has assented to a bill it becomes an act of the parliament, one of the statutes of the realm, and has the full force of law. It is placed among the records of the kingdom, and a copy sent to the king's printer to print it for public inspection.

Such act or statute binds every person within the realms, the king excepted, who to be bound must be particularly named.

CHAP. IX.—*Of the Laws of England—And of the Countries subject thereto.*

Law, in its general and comprehensive sense, signifies a rule of action; in its more confined sense denotes the rules of human action and conduct; and municipal law "is a rule of civil conduct, commanding what is right, and prohibiting what is wrong."

The wants and fears of individuals have been the principal causes for the foundation of societies; and society once formed, government results of course, as necessary to preserve and keep that society in order; and a supreme power invested with the prerogative of making laws must be placed somewhere. We have already seen that this, by the constitution of England, is in the parliament, whose

whose rise and authority have been explained. And it now remains to describe the laws made by that power, or exercised under its sanction.

The law of England may be divided into two kinds—common and statute: the first includes not only general customs of the kingdom, but particular customs of certain parts, and of certain courts and jurisdictions. These laws are contained in the records of the courts of justice, in books of reports, and in the treatises of learned sages of the profession.

Some of these sages * have contended, that these customs are as old as the primitive Britons; and this may be true with some of them; but undoubtedly the different people who have invaded and settled in this island, have introduced and incorporated many of their customs with them. In the beginning of the eleventh century there were three systems of laws in this kingdom prevailing in different parts—the Mercian, in the midland counties; the West Saxon, in the south and west; and the Danish, in the eastern parts: but of these laws Edgar projected, and Edward the Confessor extracted from them, a regular digest, to be observed throughout the whole kingdom. This digest seems to have been only a fresh promulgation of the code or Domesday-book compiled by our great Alfred, but now lost. Thus Alfred is styled the builder, and Edward the restorer, of the English law.

These are the laws which our ancestors struggled so hard to maintain under the princes of the Norman line, and which in a great degree weathered the shock of the Norman conquest; and had a more severe attack to sustain after the civil law revived in Europe. For the study and administration of the law fell into the hands of the clergy, chiefly

* Fortescue, c. 17.

 foreigners,

foreigners, who had been bred up in the obedience to that law, and strove to introduce it here; but the spirited opposition of the earls and barons preserved our municipal code. They boldly declared, "they would not change the laws of England *." The clergy on this gradually withdrew from the courts of law, but still kept possession of the chancery. However, they were in great danger until the court of common pleas was fixed at Westminster. This brought the professors of the law together, formed them into an aggregate body, and soon raised the laws to that perfection they attained under Edward I.

The common law is divided into, 1. General customs which respect the whole kingdom; 2. Particular customs of particular districts; and, 3. Particular laws adopted by particular courts. The first settles the descent of lands; manner of acquiring and transferring property; the obligation of contracts, rules of expounding wills, deeds, and acts of parliament.

The expounders of these laws are the judges in the several courts of justice, who decide according to the judicial decisions of their predecessors, and are not allowed to alter or vary from them.

2. The second branch of the common law which respects the inhabitants of particular districts, is doubtless the remains of the local customs before mentioned, and which privileges have been confirmed by several acts of parliament: such is the custom of gavelkind in Kent, which divides the inheritance among all the sons of the father; that the heir shall succeed to the estate although the father be attainted. Such is the custom of borough-english, that the youngest son shall succeed

* Stat. Mert. Blackstone.

in

in preference to his elder brothers;—that a widow in certain boroughs shall be entitled to all her husband's lands. Such are the customs of every manor—of courts holden without any royal grant—of the particular customs of the city of London—and of the custom of merchants.

All these customs must be particularly pleaded *, and must be determined by a jury of twelve men, and not by the judges; and the custom must be proved to be a good one. It must have been a custom beyond the memory of man; for if any one can prove the beginning of it, it is no custom—the right to it must never have been discontinued—it must have been peaceably acquiesced in—must be reasonable—certain—compulsory, when once established—and customs must be consistent with each other—all special customs in derogation of the common law must be construed strictly.

3. Customs of peculiar courts are, the civil and canon laws admitted in these kingdoms, which are ranked with the common law; because, although *written* laws themselves, they are only received and admitted here by custom. By the civil law is generally understood the municipal law of the Roman empire;—by the canon law is understood the Roman ecclesiastical law, relative to such matters as the church has a jurisdiction over. All those, not repugnant to the law of the land or king's prerogative, are by stat. 25 Henry VIII. c. 19. directed to be used and executed; which statute was confirmed by 1 Eliz. c. 1. The canons enacted by the clergy under James I. have been solemnly adjudged not to bind the laity †. These laws are permitted, under certain restrictions; are directed to be used in the ecclesiastical court, the

* Littleton. † Strange, 1057.

military courts, the courts of admiralty, and the courts of the two universities. But the courts of common law have a superintendency over these courts, and can punish their officers, and even their judges, for any thing illegal; can grant prohibitions to restrain or control them; and an appeal lies from them to the king's court in the last resort.

The other part of the laws consists of the statutes, acts, or edicts of the king in parliament. The oldest of these on record is the famous *Magna Charta*, confirmed by 9 Henry III. Doubtless there existed others older, but the records of them are lost.

Statutes are either *public* or *private*: public regard the whole community, and the courts of law are bound *ex officio* to take notice of them. Private acts regard particular persons, and the courts are not bound to notice them unless formally pleaded.

Statutes are again divided into *declaratory* and *remedial*; the former, to explain any part of the *common law*, which is become disputable; the latter, to supply such defects as from various circumstances arise therein.

The rules observed in the construction of statutes are, 1. In remedial statutes to consider the law only, the mischief and the remedy.—2. That a statute treating of persons of an inferior rank cannot, by general words, be extended to a superior.—3. Penal statutes must be strictly construed.—4. Statutes against frauds more liberally.—5. One part of a statute must be so construed that the whole may, if possible, stand.—6. A saving repugnant to the body of the statute is void.—7. When the common law and the statute differ, the common law must give place; in like manner,

if two statutes differ, the old one must give place.—8. A statute which repeals another, being repealed itself, the old statute revives; and, 9. Acts derogatory to the power of future parliaments do not bind.

The municipal laws of England, strictly speaking, extend only to the territory of England. There are other countries in which, however, they have obtained, and of which it will be proper to speak.

Wales continued independent of England for many centuries; but we find their princes doing homage to the crown of England, until Edward I. conquered that territory, and annexed it to the crown of England. By stat. 12 Edward I. their laws were reduced nearer the English standard; by subsequent statutes their provincial immunities were further abridged; and by stat. 27 Henry VIII. c. 26. it is enacted that Wales shall be for ever united with England; all Welshmen enjoy the same privileges as Englishmen; that lands shall descend according to the English custom, and the laws of England shall be used in Wales. By the stat. 34 and 35 Henry VIII. they were brought to the footing they are on at this day.

Scotland, although united to the crown of England on the accession of James VI. continued a separate and distinct kingdom until the Union in 1706, when, among other articles, it was agreed by the parliaments of both nations, that from the 1st May 1707, the two kingdoms should be united by the name of Great Britain—that the succession to the crown should be the same—the united kingdoms represented by one parliament—that there should be a communication of rights—that when England should pay 2,000,000*l.* to the land-tax, Scotland should pay 48,000*l.*—the standard of coin, weights, and measures, to be the same as in England

land—the laws of trade, customs, and excise, to be the same as in England—all the other laws of Scotland to remain in force, alterable by the parliament of Great Britain—sixteen peers, as has been said, to be elected to represent the peerage of Scotland in parliament, and forty-five members to represent the commons; the sixteen peers to have all the privileges of parliament, and the other peers to be peers of Great Britain, rank next after those of the same degree at the time of the Union, and to have all the privileges of peers, except sitting in the house of lords, and voting on the trial of a peer.

These articles are ratified and confirmed by stat. 5 Anne, c. 8. in which the churches and universities of the two kingdoms are confirmed and established for ever, and every subsequent king is to take an oath inviolably to maintain the same. As the municipal laws of Scotland are directed to be observed unless altered by parliament, and as these have been altered but in a very few cases, it is obvious the common law of England does not extend to Scotland.

Berwick upon Tweed, originally part of the kingdom of Scotland, was reduced and united to England by Edward III. It is now represented in the English parliament, and become a part of that kingdom in all respects.

By the act of union with Ireland, the two islands are united by the name of the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, the succession of the crown is to be the same, the united kingdoms are to be represented by a united parliament, and the number of peers and representatives are fixed, as has been already mentioned, and they are to have the same privileges as the former peers and commoners of Great Britain had.

The islands adjacent to England, as the Isle of Wight,

Wight, Portland, Thanet, &c. are comprised within a neighbouring county; but the Isles of Man, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, are in a different situation. The Isle of Man is a distinct territory, and not governed by our laws. It was formerly a subordinate kingdom subject to the king of Norway, then to England, then to the king of Scotland, and again to the crown of England, by whom it was granted to some private persons, and by descent came into possession of the duke of Athol, of whom the sovereignty was purchased in 1765, and it is now subjected to the regulations of the British excise and customs.

Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, were parcel of the dutchy of Normandy, and are governed by their own laws; nor are they bound by any act of parliament, unless particularly named.

The distant plantations in America are only subject to the laws of England as far as respects their commerce: and however lawyers may assert a right in the English parliament to bind in all cases, yet, from the recent consequences which have ensued from such an ill judged claim, it is probable the legislature will be long before it makes a second attempt of the same sort. The king's foreign dominions, the laws of England have no regard to whatsoever.

CHAP. X.—*Division of the Laws of England.*

The primary objects of the laws of England are rights and wrongs. The first of which may be divided into those rights which are annexed to the persons of men, and may therefore with propriety be called the *rights of persons*. Such rights as a man may acquire over external objects unconnected with his person, may be styled the rights of things. —The second head, *wrongs*, is also susceptible of

a two-fold division—private wrongs, or civil injuries; and public wrongs, or the breach of general and public rights.

The laws, therefore, falling under this fourfold division, the learned commentators have judiciously classed them under the four following heads:

1. Rights of persons, with the means by which such rights may be either acquired or lost.

2. Rights of things, with the means of acquiring or losing them.

3. Private wrongs, with the means of redressing them by law.

4. Public wrongs, or crimes and misdemeanors, with the means of prevention and punishment.

CHAP. XI.—*Of the Rights of Persons.*

Persons are divided by the law of England into *natural*, or such as nature formed us; or *artificial*, such as are created by human laws: these by the law of England are called corporations, or bodies politic.

Natural persons possess two rights—*absolute*, which belong to them as men—*relative*, which are incident to them as members of society.

The absolute rights of man are usually styled his natural liberty, and consist in a power of acting without any constraint, except by the laws of nature: part of this liberty he gives up when he enters into society. Political liberty, therefore, is natural liberty, so far restrained as is necessary for the public good.

The constitution of England is peculiarly adapted to preserve this political liberty, and the fundamental points thereof have been confirmed by various statutes, as Magna Charta, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Bill of Rights, and lastly, the Act of Settlement.

The

The right of personal security consists in a legal uninterrupted enjoyment of life, limbs, body, health, and reputation.

Life, in contemplation of the law, begins as soon as the infant is able to stir in the mother's womb: it is then capable to have a legacy, or surrender of a copyhold estate, may have a guardian assigned (12 Charles II. c. 24.), and may have an estate limited to its use, to take after it is born under such limitations.

A man's limbs are of such high value to him, that the law of England pardons even homicide, if committed in order to preserve them.

These rights of life and limbs can only be determined by the death of the person. But the law of England allows of two kinds of death, civil and natural. Civil death may arise various ways—by banishment, by the process of the common law, and formerly by entering into a monastery; but since the Reformation this disability is held to be abolished.

A man is by the same right entitled to have his *body* secure from insults, menaces, or assaults; his *health* from such practices as may injure it; and his *reputation* from detraction and slander.

2. Next to personal security, the law of England asserts the personal liberty of individuals, which consists in the power of removing from place to place without restraint. Magna Charta and many subsequent statutes, the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, &c. were all made to secure this liberty; nor can it be abridged but by authority of the legislature.

By virtue of this liberty, every Englishman may remain in his country as long as he pleases, unless he incurs the sentence of banishment by the law.

 The

The king may issue a writ of *ne exeat regnum*, to prevent his subjects from going into foreign parts; but cannot compel even a criminal to go out of England against his will. Exile and transportation are unknown to the common law, and when inflicted now, is either by virtue of some express statute, or by the choice of the criminal to escape a capital punishment: although *within* the realm the king may command the attendance of his subjects.

3. The third absolute right is property, and consists in disposing of our acquisitions without any control except the law of the land; and no man can be deprived of his freehold, his liberties, and free customs, but by the judgment of his peers or equals, or the law of the land. No man's lands or goods can be seized into the king's hands, nor can any be disinherited or disfranchised but by due course of law. Even if the legislature, for the good of the community, takes a man's property from him, it always secures him a full indemnification for the same. The legislature only can levy taxes, which are supposed to be granted with the consent of every individual, either by himself or his representative. The king is by various statutes restrained from taking any thing from his subjects by his own power.

To preserve to the subject these rights of personal security, we have the constitution or powers and privileges of parliament, the limitation of the king's prerogative by the law, and the right of redress in the courts of justice for any injury we may have sustained.

CHAP.

CHAP. XII.—*Of the King, his Title, Family, Councils, &c.*

The supreme executive power of the kingdom is vested by law in a single person, whether king or queen; for each sex has a right to ascend the throne. The king has peculiar privileges and duties.

§ 1. As to his title to the crown, this, by long and immemorial usage, has been allowed to be in a single person, hereditary in a manner peculiar to itself, but subject to limitation by parliament; and when so limited, is hereditary in the new possessor.

By whatever title our ancient kings ascended the throne, their posterity have generally succeeded by inheritance; this has been acquiesced in by general consent, and has ripened by degrees into common law, the same title (says judge Blackstone) by which every private man holds his estate. This mode of descent in general corresponds with that marked out by the feudal law for landed estates, but with one or two material exceptions. The crown, like them, descends to the male issue in preference to females; and in case of failure of male issue, then to the females; but not in this point, as in common inheritances; for the crown descends to the eldest daughter only. The doctrine of representation also prevails. Thus Richard II. succeeded his grandfather Edward III. in exclusion of his uncle; and George III. his grandfather George II. in preference to his uncle, the Duke of Cumberland. On failure of lineal descendants, the crown goes to the collateral relations.

The doctrine of hereditary succession does not imply an indefeasible right to the throne. The supreme legislative authority, consisting of the king and both houses of parliament, can, and have defeated this hereditary right; but however

limited, it is still hereditary in the wearer, and from hence it is said by lawyers that the king can never die; that is, on the natural death of one king, his heir or successor immediately succeeds, so that there is no interregnum.

These points will be elucidated farther by a short historical view of the succession to the crown; for from the days of Egbert, the first sole monarch of England, these maxims have been esteemed the constitutional canons of succession, and the title by descent has in some degree or other been resorted to by all the kings from that period to the Restoration.

Egbert himself was in possession of the throne of Wessex by an undisturbed descent from ancestors of upwards of three hundred years. The dominion of the other kingdoms he acquired, some by coercion, others by voluntary submission. From Egbert to Edmund Ironside, a period of above two hundred years, we find a regular succession through fifteen princes, with exception in two cases.

The invasion of the Danes suspended the regular succession for some time; but the ancient Saxon line was restored in Edward the Confessor, who was not, indeed, the next in succession, but the next who was in England, and in a capacity to mount the throne. On his decease without issue, Harold stepped into the throne, and kept it until driven out by William the Norman, in whose descendants the crown continued hereditary till the two royal lines of Normans and Saxons were united in the person of Henry II.

To Henry succeeded Richard I. who dying childless, John, his uncle, seized the throne in prejudice to Arthur, the son of his eldest brother Geoffrey. The death of this young prince conveyed an indisputable title to the son of John, Henry III.; and

and from him to Richard II. the crown descended for six generations in a regular hereditary line.

On the resignation of Richard II. the contest for the succession between the houses of York and Lancaster commenced. Henry IV. succeeded in prejudice to the claim of the duke of Clarence's daughter; and we find the parliament exerting a right to new-model the succession to the crown, by granting the crown to the king and the heirs of his body. By virtue of this statute his son and grandson, Henry V. and VI. succeeded, till the latter, by his ill conduct, lost the kingdom to Edward IV., in whose family it continued till the union of the two lines took place by the accession of Henry VII., whose son Henry VIII. succeeded by clear, indisputable right.

This prince transmitted it to his three children in successive order: during his reign the parliaments were often employed in regulating the succession; but were generally much more attentive to the humour of the prince than to the strict justice of the case. However, Edward VI., Mary I., and Elizabeth quietly succeeded. On the accession of the latter her claim was solemnly recognised in parliament; and in her reign we find the right of parliament to direct the succession to the crown asserted in the most explicit words.

On the death of Elizabeth without issue the line of Henry VIII. was extinct, and it became necessary to refer to the issue of Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York, his queen; and her eldest daughter, Margaret, having married James IV. of Scotland, his descendant, James VI. of Scotland, was the next lineal descendant; so that in his person centred all the claims of the various competitors from the Conquest; and also the rights of the old Saxon monarchs, James being a descend-

ant

ant of Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, who married Malcolm, king of Scotland.

By the descendants of James the crown was possessed, except during the period of time called the great rebellion, till the abdication of James II., when the two houses came to a resolution, that the king having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, the throne was become vacant; and they declared that William and Mary, prince and princess of Orange, should be king and queen of England, and that the exercise of the regal power should be vested in the prince; after their decease, the crown to go to their heirs, or in default of heirs, to the princess Anne of Denmark and her heirs.

Towards the end of William's reign, when all hopes of surviving issue failed, the king and parliament thought it necessary to provide for the succession, to prevent another vacancy of the crown; and by act of 12 and 13 of William, the crown was settled on the princess Sophia of Hanover and her heirs. That princess dying before queen Anne, her son George the First succeeded, in whose issue the right of inheritance still remains, but with this clause, that any one succeeding by virtue of that act must join in communion with the church of England.

§ 2. As to the king's family. His wife, the queen, is either regnant, consort, or dowager; the first holds the crown in her own right, as the first Mary, Elizabeth, and Anne; and she has the same prerogatives as the king:—the second, the queen consort, is distinct from the king, and can of herself purchase and convey lands, make leases, &c. without the consent of her husband, and may take a grant from the king, which no other married woman can do. She has also a separate court, and

separate

separate officers, not only of ceremony, but of law; she may sue and be sued, without joining her husband; and may make a will, and is in every respect in law the same as a single, and not as a married woman. She has also many exemptions and minute prerogatives, and some ancient pecuniary advantages; and formerly her revenue consisted in certain reservations out of the king's demesne lands; but now she has a fixed annual revenue settled on her out of the king's civil list.

To compass or imagine her death is treason. A queen dowager enjoys the same privileges, but crimes against her life or honour are not of so high a nature.

The prince of Wales, as heir apparent, and his consort, and the king's eldest daughter, are protected by the same laws. The heir apparent is usually created prince of Wales and earl of Chester; but he is duke of Cornwall by inheritance, and enjoys the revenue of that dutchy as his right.

The rest of the royal family are not particularly regarded by the ancient law, except the person of the princess royal, and the regulations to give them a certain degree of precedence before all peers and public officers. By statute of the twelfth of Geo. III. they are restrained from contracting matrimony without the previous consent of the king.

§ 3. The king's councils are many, among which the high court of parliament has the first rank. The peers of the realm are by birth hereditary counsellors of the crown, and may be called together by the king for that purpose at any time. In former times these councils were frequent, but since the regular meetings of parliament they have fallen into disuse. The judges, by ancient acts, form also a council for the king in matter of law.

But

But the principal council of the king is his privy council, who are constituted solely by the king's will, and without limitation of number, or any other ceremony than nomination and taking the oaths. The members may be removed at pleasure, and the only necessary qualification is to be born within the king's dominions.

The power of this council is to inquire into all offences against government, and to commit the offenders to custody; but such persons are entitled to the *habeas corpus*. It is the court of appeal in admiralty causes, and in all judgments appealed from in the plantations. The privy-counsellors' privileges consist principally in the security which the law gives against any attempt or conspiracy against their lives. This council was by common law dissolved on the king's death; but by act of 6 Anne, c. 7. it is continued for six months, unless sooner dissolved by the successor.

The cabinet council, which consists of a few members of the privy council, holding certain offices of state, is a modern institution.

§ 4. The duties incumbent on the king by the constitution are, to govern his people by law; this is expressly declared by statute of 12 and 13 William III. c. 2. and by the terms of that contract which is couched in the coronation oath, and is taken by every king or queen at that solemn ceremony.

§ 5. His prerogatives are many, but limited. Prerogative is that special pre-eminence which the king hath above other persons; and these are either *direct* or *incidental*.

His direct prerogatives consist in the right of sending ambassadors, and making treaties with foreign powers; making peace or war; creating peers; in his exemptions from all suits of law, all demands

demands on him being to be referred by petition to the chancellor, and no statutes of limitation can bar his claim.

§ 6. He is also considered, as has been said before, as a constituent part of the legislative power. It is his prerogative to make war or peace. He is the head of the army and navy—the distributer of justice—the fountain of honour—the arbiter of commerce, and the head of the church.

In domestic concerns, he can establish public fairs and markets, regulate weights and measures, and coin money, or fix a value on foreign coin.

§ 7. The next branch of the king's prerogative is his revenue, which is either ordinary or extraordinary.

Among the articles which compose the first branch is the ecclesiastical, as the custody of the temporalities of bishops, which, on a vacancy, vest in the king during that time; but by modern custom the new bishop receives the restitution of the temporalities entire, so that the king reaps little or no benefit from this branch. He has also what the law calls a corody, or a right to send one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, until provided for by such bishop; but of this custom the king does not now avail himself. He has also a right to the first fruits and tenths of all spiritual preferments in the kingdom; but this, by an act of queen Anne, is appropriated to the augmentation of the livings of the poor clergy.

The next branch of the king's revenue consists in the rents and profits of demesne lands; being the share of land reserved for the crown, at the original distribution of landed property, or such as came afterwards by other means, as forfeitures, &c. But most of the lands which were once vested in the crown, have been granted away by the improvidence

vidence of former kings. To prevent any further impoverishment of the crown, some limitations are imposed by an act of William III.

The king formerly enjoyed a considerable income from the profits of his military tenures—from the prerogatives of pre-emption and purveyance, by which he had a right to buy provisions, and other necessaries, for his household, at a fixed valuation, and in preference to other persons—from granting wine licenses: but these are now abrogated. The forests also yielded formerly a revenue; but these expired with the disuse of the forest courts under Charles I.

Fines in the king's courts of justice used also to produce an income; but these are now reduced to little or nothing. Shipwrecks, where the owners of the property cannot be distinguished, become the king's. A right to royal mines, or such as contain silver or gold, is also a prerogative of the king; but limited by two statutes of William and Mary.

Treasure trove, or money found hidden in the earth—weifs, or goods stolen and thrown away by a thief—estrays, or such animals as are found wandering, and for which no owner is found—were old prerogatives, and the sources of revenue; but now little arises from them.

Forfeitures for crimes—*escheats* of lands, that is, such lands to which no heirs appear—and the custody of idiots, formed likewise a part of the royal revenue.

By certain circumstances of improvident management, these ancient revenues are sunk almost to nothing, and the king is now allowed a certain annual income to support his household, and such other civil expenses of government as are termed the civil list; which, under the reign of William III.,

III., Anne, and George I., was 700,000*l.* *per annum.* Under George II. it was increased to 800,000*l.*, and is now, under George III., settled at 900,000*l.*

§ 8.—*Of subordinate Magistrates.*

Magistrates are either supreme or subordinate—this section will be devoted to the latter; but omitting those of the law, as they will be treated of with more propriety hereafter.

There are various officers who have local jurisdiction, and whose duty it is to see the laws put in force: and these are sheriffs, coroners, justices of peace, constables, surveyors of the highways, and overseers of the poor.

The sheriffs are officers of great antiquity, and are called in Latin *vice-comes*, as being deputy to the ancient earl or comes, who had formerly the custody of the county or shire; which by degrees is devolved on, and is now wholly executed by the sheriff.

These officers were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the county; but by statute of 9th of Edward III. it is enacted, that the nomination of the sheriff shall be assigned to the chancellor, treasurer, and judges, to whom, by subsequent statutes, other persons are added; who, on a certain day, called in law the Morrow of All Souls, nominate three persons, one of whom is appointed sheriff by the king. This holds for all counties, except Cornwall, where the prince of Wales appoints the sheriff, and Westmorland, where that office is hereditary.

The office of sheriff continues for one year, and no longer; and no person serving the office of sheriff can be compelled to serve again for three years.

The

The sheriff has power to hear and determine all causes of forty shillings value and under, in his county court. He presides at the elections of knights of the shire, coroners, and verdurers; must judge of the qualification of voters, and return such as are duly elected.

As keeper of the peace he is the first man in the county during his office; he may apprehend, commit, and hold to bail persons breaking the peace; must pursue and take all traitors, murderers, felons, and other misdoers; must defend the county against any of the king's enemies, and for this purpose has power to raise all the people to assist him, which is called the *posse comitatus*; this summons every person in the county of fifteen years of age, and under the rank of a peer, is bound to obey. But the sheriff cannot try any criminal cause, or act as a common justice of peace during his office.

In his ministerial capacity he is to execute all processes issuing from the king's court, is to serve the writs, arrest, take bail, and summon juries; is to have the custody of the prisoners, and execute the sentence of the court: he is to seize to the king's use all lands, which, by act of law, devolve to the crown, and to levy fines and forfeitures.

To execute these duties, he has under him an under-sheriff, bailiffs, and jailers, who have each of them their respective duties.

The coroner is an officer who has likewise to do with pleas of the crown: he is chosen for life by the freeholders of the county in which is to officiate; and his duty is to inquire into the manner of any sudden death, concerning shipwrecks, or treasure trove.

The next order of subordinate magistrates are, the custos rotulorum, who is keeper of the records of

of a county, and the justices of the peace, a number of whom are appointed by the king's special commission to keep the peace; and any two or more are empowered to determine felonies and other misdemeanors. The qualification for this office is the possession of 100*l.* yearly value in lands clear of deductions.

The constables are of two sorts, high constables, and petty constables. The former are appointed by the court leet of the hundred over which they are to preside, or in default, by the justices in their quarter session, and are removable by the same. The petty constables are inferior officers in every town or parish, appointed by the court leet or justices, subordinate to the high constable. They act as headboroughs or tithing-men. Their duty is to keep the peace, and they have power to arrest, imprison, and even, in certain cases, to break open a house; they are also to keep watch and ward, and for that purpose they have the appointment of watchmen, either at discretion, or by the custom of the place: these men are invested with many of the powers possessed by the person who appoints them.

There are also in most parishes surveyors of the highways, whose duties are to see the highways kept in proper repair, and to call together the inhabitants or occupiers of land for the performance of that useful work.

The last species of officers to be noticed, are the overseers of the poor, who are to see that a proper provision is made for those unhappy objects in their districts, and to make a rate or assessment for the same.

§ 9.

§ 9.—*Of the People, whether Aliens, Denizens, or Natives.*

The first and most obvious distribution of the people, is into *aliens*, and *natural-born subjects*. Natural-born subjects are such as are born within the kingdom, or allegiance of the king.

Allegiance is that duty which all men owe the king for the protection they receive from him ; and an Englishman who quits the country still continues to owe allegiance. The same allegiance is due from an alien, while he continues under the king's protection, but ceases the moment he quits the kingdom.

Aliens are such foreigners as come to reside here. Such a person cannot purchase land for his own use ; but aliens may trade as freely as natural-born subjects ; they can also sue in the king's courts, dispose of their personal estate, and make a will. These favours are only extended to aliens who are friends ; alien enemies have no such privileges.

The children of Englishmen, although born abroad, are not aliens, but natural-born subjects, provided the father is in allegiance to the king ; and all children, even of foreigners, born here, are natural-born subjects.

Denizen is a person who has obtained the king's patent, granting him the privileges annexed thereto ; which are, a power to take land by purchase or devise, and to enable his children born after denization to inherit.

A foreigner cannot be completely naturalized but by act of parliament, which places him exactly in the same state as a natural-born subject ; except that he cannot be a member of the privy-council, or of either house of parliament, or hold offices or grants,

grants, &c.; nor can any naturalization bill be received in either house of parliament without such disabling clause: before naturalization the person must receive the sacrament, and take the oath of allegiance and supremacy.

Every foreign seaman serving seven years on board an English ship is naturalized; and all foreign protestants and Jews residing seven years in the American colonies, foreign protestants serving in the militia, or being three years employed in the whale fishery, are also naturalized.

§ 10.—*Of the Clergy.*

The people are also divisible into two kinds, the *clergy* and *laity*;—the clergy comprehending all persons in holy orders, or ecclesiastical places.

This body of men have large privileges allowed them by the laws, and had formerly much greater. At present a clergyman cannot be compelled to serve on a jury, nor to appear at a court leet; nor can he be chosen bailiff, constable, or the like. He is privileged from arrest during his attendance on divine service; and in cases of felony he may take the benefit of clergy without being branded in the hand, and may enjoy that privilege more than once, which a layman cannot do.

But they have also their disabilities, and are incapable, if in full orders, of sitting in the house of commons; nor can they engage in any manner of trade, or sell any merchandise.

The different ranks of the clergy are, archbishops, who preside over the provinces; bishops, over the dioceses; a dean and chapter, who are the bishop's council; archdeacons, who preside over a portion of a bishopric; rural deans, who preside over a lesser portion; and parsons or vicars, who do the duty of their respective parishes.

The

The archbishop is chief of the clergy in his province, and may inspect the conduct of his bishops and inferior clergy, and deprive them for notorious bad conduct. The archbishop has also his own peculiar diocese where he executes episcopal jurisdiction. He, on receiving the king's writ, may call the clergy of his diocese to meet in convocation, and to him all appeals are made from inferior jurisdictions. He is guardian of the spiritualities of a bishopric during a vacancy; but during the vacancy of the archiepiscopal see the dean and chapter are guardians. The archbishop can present to all livings in the disposal of the bishops of his province, if not filled within six months; and has a prerogative, when he consecrates a bishop, to name one of his chaplains to be provided for by such bishop; in lieu of which, it is now the custom for the bishop to make over the next presentation of such dignity or benefice in the bishop's disposal, as the archbishop shall choose; and this is, therefore, called his *option*.

The archbishop of Canterbury has, by custom, the privilege of crowning the king; and may grant such dispensations, not contrary to scripture or law, as the pope used to grant: hence the privilege of granting special licenses to marry, to hold two livings, and to confer degrees.

The bishop's power and authority consists in inspecting the manners of the clergy and laity; and for this purpose he has several courts under him, and may visit the parts of his diocese at pleasure. He can appoint a chancellor under him, to assist him in matters of law, and who must be of the rank of doctor of civil law.

Archbishoprics and bishoprics may become void by death, by deprivation for any crime, and by resignation.

The

The dean and chapter are those clergy who are reserved for the service of the bishop's own cathedral, and the chief of them is called dean—some of the chapters are in the gift of the king, others of the bishop, and some are still elected by each other. The members of the chapter are called canons, or prebendaries.

The archdeacon is usually appointed by the bishop, has a kind of episcopal authority, and has a court of his own for punishing offenders, by spiritual censures, and for hearing ecclesiastical causes.

The parsons or vicars have the care, or cure as it is called, of the parishes.

A parson is one who has the full right of a parochial church, and is himself, in the eye of the law, a body corporate, and possesses, during his life, the freehold of the parsonage house, the glebe, tithes, and other dues, and is usually called a *rector*, or governor: but some of the tithes are *appropriated* to some spiritual corporation, frequently the patron of the living, who in the eye of the law is deemed such.

These appropriating corporations depute some one to perform the duty of divine service, and who is called vicar; such person is not removable at pleasure, and is entitled for his maintenance to a portion of the glebe, or land, annexed to the benefice, and a part of the tithes, usually such as are the most troublesome to collect, and are, therefore, called small tithes. In some places the vicar enjoys a portion of the great tithes.

To be either a parson or vicar, a man must be in holy orders; must be at least in priest's orders, twenty-three years of age, and approved by the bishop, who may object to him on reasonable grounds, which cause the bishop may be compelled

to assign. A vicar, on being instituted, must, if required by the bishop, take ar oath of perpetual residence.

The rights of a parson to his church will be explained hereafter; his duties are pointed out by various statutes and canons.

A parson or vicar may cease to be such many ways—1. By death;—2. By cession in taking another benefice, unless he can obtain a dispensation to hold both; and, 3. By consecration to a bishopric; but by favour of the crown a bishop may hold benefices by what is called *in commendam*;—4. By resignation; and, 5. By deprivation for good cause.

A curate is the lowest degree in the church, being the officiating minister in the room of the rector or vicar, and is, in general, paid by those who appoint him, except in some few places which are called *perpetual curacies*.

Churchwardens are the guardians of the church, and are appointed, in some places, by the minister, in some, by the parish, and in some, by both. They are deemed corporations by common law; but for bad behaviour may be removed and called to account at common law. Their office is to repair the church, and make rates for the same; and they are joined with the overseers in the care of the poor, and have various other duties directed by acts of parliament.

Parish clerks and sextons are also regarded by common law as persons having freeholds in their office; parish clerks were frequently in holy orders; they are generally appointed by the incumbent, unless by custom they are chosen by the parish.

§ 11.

§ 11.—*Of the civil State.*

The lay part of the people may be divided into three distinct states, civil, military, and maritime.

The civil state includes all men, whether noble or otherwise, who are not included in the clergy, or the military, or maritime state.

These are divided into nobility and commonalty; the nobility will be more properly spoken of when the king's power as the fountain of honour is noticed.

The commonalty consist of esquires, gentlemen, yeomen, tradesmen, artificers, and labourers.

Esquires and gentlemen, Sir Edward Coke says, are titles of worship, and not of dignity: the same lawyer says, that every squire is a gentleman, and that a gentleman is one who bears coat armour;—if so, these titles sprang from the king entirely, as he, by his heralds, only can grant the privilege of bearing arms. However, one order of men, viz. barristers, have been, on a hearing in the court of common pleas, determined to be in possession of that title.

Of the other orders, as yeomen, tradesmen, &c. the law requires that in processes of the courts against them on which outlawry may be awarded, their several estates, degrees, and mysteries, shall be inserted.

§ 12.—*Of the military and maritime States.*

The military includes the soldiery and militia while in actual service.

In free states the profession of a soldier is justly an object of jealousy. The law of this country, therefore, knows no such state as a perpetual standing soldier, and Henry VII. was the first king of England who had a guard about his person.

The feudal law, introduced in its greatest rigour by William the Conqueror, regulated an army, consisting of a soldier for every knight's fee, which amounted to sixty thousand; these the king could call out for the defence of the kingdom without expense, they being obliged to serve by virtue of their tenures.

When under Charles II. military tenures were abolished, some regulations took place with respect to a militia, and to these in general the defence of the kingdom was committed; but as the nation engaged in war, more regular troops were raised, and by degrees became also an establishment in time of peace: Charles II. kept up above five thousand troops for guards and garrisons, and James II. increased them to thirty thousand, which he paid out of the civil list; but this prerogative in the king was abrogated by the Bill of Rights, which declares, that the keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless with consent of parliament, is illegal.

But as standing armies are kept up all over Europe, it has been judged necessary by the legislature to maintain one here, even in time of peace; the supplies for which are granted for one year only, and the act for disciplining them, usually called the Mutiny Bill, is likewise passed, to be in force one year only; so that these two acts must be renewed annually, or the standing army would, on their expiration, be disbanded.

Soldiers guilty of any crime against military discipline are tried by a court martial.

The *maritime* state is more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution; the navy of England being also deemed the defence and ornament of the kingdom; and many laws have been made for its support.

One

One disagreeable circumstance attending the navy, is the power of impressing seamen for the purpose of manning it, the only effectual mean which has hitherto been suggested. From this power many species of seafaring people have been exempted by law.

The discipline of the navy is maintained by several statutes, and in these statutes every possible offence is enumerated, and the punishment annexed, which give to the naval service very great advantages over the army, where the punishments for offences rest much in the breasts of the court martial.

A court martial determines on all offences committed in the fleet.

§ 13.—*Of private Relations—Of Master and Servant—Of Husband and Wife—Of Parent and Child—Of Guardian and Ward.*

1. *Of master and servant.*—Slavery does not exist in England; but persons may become servants to others with their own consent, and sometimes against it. And all single men, from twelve years old to sixty, all married men under thirty, and single women between twelve and forty, not having any visible livelihood, may be compelled, by two justices of the peace, to go to service in husbandry or trade.

Apprentices are usually bound for seven years, to learn the masters' art and mystery; and the children of poor persons may be apprenticed by the overseers of the poor till twenty-one years of age.

By the statutes respecting labourers, they are all compellable to work, and liable to punishment if they neglect it.

The laws respecting master and servant are very numerous, and any dispute between them must be

settled

settled by one or more justices, who may even discharge the apprentice, if they think right.

It seems to be a general rule in law, that a master is answerable for the act of his servant; but this is with some limitations; and a wife, a friend, or relation, who is used to transact business for a man, is, in this light, considered as a servant.

2. *Of husband and wife.*—Marriage is considered in the eye of the English law as a civil contract, and, therefore, requires only that the parties should be willing and able to contract.

A person being married before; a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve; want of consent of the parents and guardians; want of reason; are all legal disabilities to marriage: but when these are removed, any persons have a right to contract marriage, conforming to the ceremonies laid down by the law.

Marriage can only be dissolved by death or divorce, which is of two kinds—one may be granted by the ecclesiastical courts on proof of a criminal intercourse, &c. and is called *à mensa et thoro*—and the other, or total divorce, called *à vinculo matrimonii*, can only be made complete, and the injured party enabled to marry again, by act of parliament.

By marriage, a man and wife are one person in law; the husband is bound to provide her with necessaries, to pay debts contracted by her for necessaries, but not if she elopes and lives with another man; he also is liable to her debts contracted before marriage. On the contrary, what property she possesses becomes his, and if any injury is done her, the husband alone can sue for redress. A married woman can sue in two cases only, where a husband has abjured the realm, or is banished.

Husband

Husband and wife cannot be evidences for or against each other.

Parent and child form the next relation.—Children are of two sorts—legitimate and illegitimate. A legitimate child is one born after marriage; these a parent is obliged by the law of England to maintain, to protect, and educate, according to their parents' ability. The parent has certain powers over the child—he has a right to the profit of his labour while under age—to the administration of his effects, if the child dies unmarried and without children.

An illegitimate child, or bastard, is one born out of marriage: such a one can never inherit, or be heir to any one, and can only take property given him by will.

The last relationship we shall advert to, is that of *guardian and ward*. Guardians are those who have the custody of such as are not of sufficient discretion to guide themselves, and their effects, as minors, or persons under age, idiots, and lunatics; but the first only is treated of here: the minor, in the language of the law, is called an infant, and is considered so under twenty-one years of age.

§ 14.—*Of Corporations and Bodies Politic.*

Corporations are persons created by the law for particular purposes; bodies politic are framed by policy and law to have perpetual succession, and to sue or be sued.

Corporations are either sole, when by law any particular person is invested with the usual privileges of corporations; or aggregate, when many are invested therewith.

Corporations are also distinguished into spiritual, temporal, or mixed.

 Corporations

Corporations may commence by common law, by the king's charter, or by prescription.

By common law, the king, the bishops, deans, &c. and churchwardens, are corporations.

The king can constitute any certain number of persons a corporation.

Other corporations are created by act of parliament, as the college of physicians.

And any body of men who have acted as a corporation, time out of mind, are established corporations.

CHAP. XIII.—§ 1. *Of the Rights of Things—Feudal Law—Ancient Tenure.*

The rights of things are described by the learned commentator Blackstone, to be those rights which a man may acquire, in or to such external things as are unconnected with his person, which writers on natural law call the right of property.

The history of the acquisition of property is a curious subject, but branches into too many channels to be here treated. It seems now to be admitted, that occupancy united with labour, gave the first right of property to external things. The value which all men naturally fix on property, and the necessity of assigning clearly to whom any disputed property belonged, drew the attention of legislatures at a very early period of civilization; and to avoid contests, induced them to ordain laws for its protection and descent. These laws have directed how property shall be hereafter acquired, maintained, and lost. The laws of England, on that subject, divide property into *real* and *personal*.

1. *Real* property is such as is fixed and immoveable, and is distinguished into lands, tenements, and hereditaments.

Hereditaments are either corporeal or incorporeal: the

the former consisting wholly of substantial objects, as land, and the structures thereon; and the latter, of some right issuing out of the former—as, 1. the *advowson*, or right of presentation to a church or benefice.

2. *Tithes*, or a tenth part of the increase yearly arising from the land.

3. The right of *common*, being the privilege which a man hath to feed his beasts, catch fish, dig turf, cut wood, &c. on grounds which are not his property. A right to use a road or way is also an incorporeal hereditament.

4. *Offices*, in some of which a man may have an estate for life.

5. *Franchises*, or a grant of some branch of the king's prerogative in the hands of a subject; as the right to hold a court leet, to have the property of wrecks, strays, forfeitures, &c.

6. *Annuities*, or a yearly income.

7. *Rents*, or the profits arising from some corporeal property.

To these are added, *dignities*, which have been already spoken of, and *corodies*, or the right of receiving allotments of provision for a person's maintenance.

As an acquaintance with the feudal system is absolutely necessary to attain a knowledge of the constitution, so is a more general acquaintance necessary to gain a knowledge of the law.

It has been already said, that the northern nations that overrun Europe, settled themselves on the conquered lands, and that each person received a portion of the said lands, according to his rank in the conquering army. These allotments were called *feuda*, feuds, fiefs or fees, which last appellation, we are told, signifies, in the northern language, rewards or stipends; and the condition annexed

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to them was, that the possessor should assist the chief in defending the general property of all; and in case of nonperformance of this original compact, as it may be called, the land reverted to the public, to be again disposed of at the will of the chief. To form as close a connexion as possible between all parties, the common soldier, who possessed the smallest portion of lands, was subordinate, or said to hold his land of a superior, and that superior was also subordinate to *his* superior or chief.

Thus, by the feudal connexion, a regular chain of subordination was introduced, and an army was ready, not only to defend each man's particular property, but also the whole of their newly-acquired territory. The wisdom of this institution was so apparent, that some countries of Europe, which had not been overrun by these northern people, we are told adopted it.

In this island, under the Saxons, the feudal system most certainly existed; but not in its full vigour until the invasion of William the Norman, who, by subduing the possessors of lands that took arms against him, became possessed of their forfeited estates, and granted them out again to his followers, on the strict terms of feudal tenure. It was about the nineteenth year of this prince's reign, that, we are informed, all the landholders, with a view of defending themselves against a threatened invasion from Denmark, submitted themselves and lands to the burden of military tenure: that is, all the lands not hitherto granted on those terms were then surrendered to the king, who restored them to the owners as a feud or fee.

From this circumstance the maxim arose, that the king is universal lord and proprietor of all the land in his kingdom. He, therefore, in the feudal law, is deemed the lord; and the person to whom

he immediately granted, his vassal or tenant; who took an oath of fealty or faith to his lord, did homage as an acknowledgment of his subordination, and was bound to perform certain *services.* These originally were two only, to attend the lord in his court, and to attend him to the field. In the first capacity he was to try his fellow-tenants for any misdemeanor, and hence they obtained the appellation of *pares*, or peers; in the second, to attend the lord to the wars, with a certain number of followers, according to the quantity of land he held.

These grants, at first, were at will, then for a certain number of years, then for life, and, at last, on paying what was called a *relief*, at the death of the possessor, were made hereditary; but the grantee could not sell or alienate but by consent of the lord. On the same tenure the vassal held of the king, his under-tenants or vassals held of him.

All lands being thus originally holden of some superior lord, the thing holden is called a *tenement*, the possessors, *tenants*, and the manner of holding, a *tenure*. Those that held immediately of the crown were called *tenants in capite.*

Tenures were of four kinds—free or base; certain or uncertain.

1. *Free* tenure, or such as a soldier or freeman might perform.

2. *Base*, or such as was only fit for peasants.

3. *Certain*, where the service was fixed. And,

4. *Uncertain*, where it depended on the will of the lord.

The tenures were all subject to certain services and duties, which were mostly, by degrees, done away; and what remained, was by the statute of Charles II, totally abolished.

§ 2.—*Of modern English Tenure—Of Freehold Estate—Of Estates less than Freehold.*

The military tenure being done away, the principal mode by which lands are now held, is called *free socage*, which consists in a service, honourable and certain.—*Socage* was formerly used in contradistinction to knights' service, or a military tenure, and is twofold, *free socage*, or *villain socage*.

Free socage is therefore land held by payment of a certain rent, or by allegiance only; and is now called *freehold*.

Villain socage, or such land as was held of certain lords, and is that from which our copyhold tenures have sprung.

Manors are certain districts of grounds held by some lord or proprietor, who kept a certain quantity of land in his own hands for the use of his family, and distributed the rest among his tenants. Such as he granted by deed upon certain rents or free services, differed little from free socage lands, and from them have arisen most of the freeholds holding of manors. The land which was held by no assurance in writing, was held in villainage.

Those possessions called estates, may be considered in a threefold view—1. As to the *interest* the tenant hath therein; 2. The *time* which he has to enjoy; and, 3. The *number* and *connexion* of the tenants.

1. The interest he hath in his estate is again subdivided into estate of *inheritance*, or estate not of *inheritance*.

A person may also possess an estate of inheritance in *fee simple*, or in *fee tail*.

Those who possess an estate in fee simple, have and

and hold it, for themselves and heirs for ever, without noticing what heirs.

Estates in fee *tail* are those which are limited to certain heirs—these are either *general* or *special*. General, are those where estates are given to one, and the heirs of his body—Special, where it is restrained to certain heirs.

Such are the divisions of freehold estates of inheritance: but there are also freehold estates not of inheritance, or *for life* only. Estates for life are created by deed or grant. Thus a lease made of lands for a person's life makes him a tenant for life; and the grant of a manor, without the insertion of the word heirs, conveys only an estate for life.

A man may hold an estate for his life by the *courtesy of England*, which is, where a man marries a woman seised or possessed of an estate of inheritance, and has a child born alive, on his wife's death he becomes tenant for life by the courtesy of England.

When a woman is married to a man possessed of an estate of inheritance, and he dies, in that case the wife shall have the third part of his lands and tenements for her life, and she is then called a tenant by dower.

A man may possess an estate less than freehold, and these are, 1. Estates for years;—2. Estates at will;—and, 3. Estates by sufferance.

An estate for years is a contract for the possession of lands or tenements for a certain period.

An estate for life, we have seen, may be freehold; but an estate for one thousand years is only a leasehold.

Estates at will are those held at the will of another. Copyhold estates were, strictly speaking, estates at will; but custom has now given them a more permanent security.

As

As to the *time* for which an estate is to be enjoyed—this is either in *possession*, *remainder*, or *reversion*; those in possession have already been described.

An estate in remainder, is one limited to take effect after another estate is determined. As if an estate is granted to A for twenty years, and after that period to B, B has an estate in remainder.

An estate in reversion, is when an estate is left in the grantor, to commence after a particular estate granted out by him.

There are other distinctions in the tenure of estates, into *joint-tenancy*, *coparceny*, and *common*.

Joint-tenancy is where estates are granted to one or more persons.

Coparceny is where lands descend from an ancestor to one or more persons.

Estates in common are those which are held by several titles, but by unity of possession.

§ 3.—*Of Titles to Things in general—by Descent—by Purchase—by Occupancy and Prescription—by Forfeiture—by Alienation.*

Having shewn in the foregoing section the nature of things real, by describing the tenure, and the various kinds of estates; the next essential property is, the *title* by which they are held. There are two ways by which most lands and real property come into the hands of the possessors—by *descent*, and by *purchase*.

Descent, or hereditary succession, is that title by which a man, on the death of his ancestor, acquires an estate as heir at law.

Consanguinity, or kindred, is that connexion or relation which persons descended from the same stock

stock have to each other, and is either *lineal* or *collateral*.

Lineal is where persons are descended in a direct line, as father, grandfather, son, grandson, &c.

Collateral kindred is where two persons are descended from one common ancestor, as the children of two brothers or sisters.

The rules of law for descent are, that land must always descend; that the issue male shall succeed in preference to female; that every person has a right to represent his ancestor; that on failure of lineal descendants, collateral shall succeed; that collateral heirs must be, what is called, of the whole blood, that is, derived from the same couple of ancestors: and in the collateral line the male has also preference to the female.

Title by purchase means every other way of acquiring lands except descent, and the lawyers have divided it into titles by, 1. Escheat, 2. Prescription, 3. Forfeiture, and, 4. Alienation.

Escheat is where, on determination of the tenure, the land returns back to the original grantor or lord. Prescription is where a man's only title to an estate is his having enjoyed it time immemorial. Forfeiture is a punishment annexed by law for some illegal act or negligence in the owner, as by committing the crimes of treason, felony, and other offences; by alienating lands contrary to law; by omitting to present to a living in due time; by simony, or presenting to a benefice for money, gift, or reward; by a breach of condition; by committing waste; and by bankruptcy.

But the usual method of acquiring a title to an estate is by what is called alienation, conveyance, or purchasing in the limited sense, and which may be effected by sale, gift, marriage settlement, devise, or other ways.

All

All persons in possession are capable of disposing of their estates as far as their interest extends, except persons attainted of treason or felony, idiots, persons insane, infants, and persons in confinement (but the four latter with some restrictions), and married women.

The modes by which estates are disposed of are—

By deed, or by writing sealed and delivered by the parties.

By matter of record, as private acts of parliament, the king's grant, fines, and common recoveries.

By the special custom of particular places.

By devise or will.

To endeavour to give a further definition of all these terms, or to enter into an explanation of the various effects which result from their operation, would be leading the young reader beyond the limits designed in this work. Those, therefore, who wish for further information, may consult the excellent Commentaries of Mr. Justice Blackstone.

§ 4. *Of Title to Things personal, how acquired.*

What the law denominates things personal, are such as are moveable, and may accompany his person wherever he goes.

Property in things personal is either in *possession* or in *action.*

Possession the law divides into *absolute* or *qualified.*

Absolute possession is where a man hath exclusively a right and occupation of any moveable, as goods, plate, money, &c. tame animals, as horses, oxen, sheep, &c. In other animals which are not tame and domestic, but wild, a man has only *qualified* property until he takes or tames them, and then his property becomes absolute in them. A man has also

also a qualified property in goods intrusted to him as a carrier, or pledged to him.

Property in *action* is that in which a man has the right but not the possession, which he may recover by suit of law, as money due on bond.

There are various ways by which a man may acquire a title to things personal, which are by lawyers classed under the twelve following heads:

1. By *occupancy*. Whatever moveables he finds, and which are unclaimed by any owner, become his by occupancy; and this holds with respect to a stream of water unoccupied, on which a man may erect a mill.

2. *Prerogative* gives a title to certain property, as in the case of the king, and of such claim by grant or prescription under him; the killing of wild animals, commonly called *game*, is said to be the prerogative of the king, or such as hold certain of his prerogatives under him. The law on this head is laid down differently by Judge Blackstone and his editor Mr. Christian.

3. *Forfeiture*, as a punishment for some crime or misdemeanor. This takes place from the time of the party's conviction, and not before.

4. *Custom* vests a property in particular persons either by local usage or the general custom of the kingdom: these interests are denominated *heriots*, *mortuaries*, and *heir looms*.

Heriots are reservations in grants or leases, or arising by immemorial custom, and consist of the best beast or other thing.

Mortuaries are gifts claimed by the minister of a parish on the death of his parishioners.

Heir looms are personal chattels which go to the heir with the inheritance, and not to the executor. All these claims are regulated by custom.

5. *Succession*,

5. *Succession,* as where certain persons succeed to others in offices, as deans and chapters, mayors, &c. of corporations, masters and fellows of colleges, who in the eye of the law are deemed corporations, and who succeed to the personal property of the said corporation.

6. *Marriage.* By law all the goods or chattels of the wife, on marriage become vested in the husband; whereas in a real estate, he becomes entitled to the rents and profits during the marriage only.

7. *Judgment* is frequently the means of vesting property in a person in consequence of some suit or action in a court of justice.

8. *Gifts,* and, 9. *Grants.* Gifts and grants of personal property have this distinguishing character, that the former are gratuitous, and the latter for some consideration. A proper gift or grant is accompanied with possession, and takes place immediately; otherwise they are contracts only.

10. *Contract,* which is an agreement to do certain things on sufficient consideration. These agreements may be either express or implied, and either executed or executory; and the consideration must be lawful and valuable. The most usual contracts are, 1. sale or exchange; 2. bail; 3. *hiring* and *borrowing*; 4. debt: all these branch out into a variety of particular circumstances too minute to be here detailed.

11. *Bankruptcy,* which is the state of a trader who cannot satisfy his creditors; and therefore the remainder of his effects are by law assigned to certain of his creditors called *assignees,* for the benefit of the rest.

12. *Testament* and *administration.* Testaments, commonly called wills, are the declaration of a person

person as to the disposal of his property after his decease. Every person has the privilege of making a will, except males under fourteen and females under twelve years of age, madmen and idiots, or persons who are deprived of freedom of will, as married women, and criminals.

Wills are either in writing or verbal, each of which are subject to different regulations. A verbal or nuncupative will must be reduced to writing in a certain time. A *codicil* is a supplement to a will.

Written wills need not have any witness for the disposal of personal estates; but for a real estate they must be witnessed by three persons in the presence of the testator.

An executor to a will is the person to whom the testator commits the execution of his will; and this office all persons, even married women and infants, are capable of undertaking.

But if a person dies without a will, the proper court will grant what is called letters of administration. A title by

Administration arises, therefore, both to executors and administrators, and vests the property of the deceased in them, to administer it according to the will of the deceased and according to law.

CHAP. XIV. *Of private Wrongs, the Mode of Redress.*

Wrongs are divisible into two species, *private* and *public*. *Private* wrongs are an infringement or privation of the rights of individuals, and are called civil injuries: these will be the subject of the present chapter.

To redress wrongs, courts of justice are instituted, and remedies must be sought in these courts by suit or action; except in certain cases, where the injured party may find a remedy without any such application;

application; and these exceptions are by *mere act* of the party, or by *mere operation* of law.

Private redress attained by the act of the party, is of two sorts, such as, 1. when a man acts in *defence* of himself, his wife, children, or servants, when it is lawful to repel force by force; 2. in retaking property unlawfully taken from a person; 3. by entry into lands or tenements unjustly retained; 4. by removing a nuisance; 5. by distraining goods for rents, which is called distress; and, 6. by seizing heriots.

Redress may be had also by the act of both parties, as where the injured party and he who has injured him, settle their dispute by agreement, or *accord*; and by *arbitration*, or referring it to one or more indifferent people.

Redress by the *mere operation* of law, is twofold; 1. if a person owing money makes his creditor his executor, the latter can pay himself out of the deceased person's effects, in preference to any other creditor; and, 2. if a man has a claim on an estate, and that estate by any means comes into his hands, he has a right to retain it.

The remedies for other wrongs are by application to the courts of law; and this is now to be considered as a remedy between subject and subject. When the king is a party, the remedy is of a peculiar nature.

All civil injuries are of two kinds—*with* force or violence, and *without*.

Injuries which affect personal security of individuals, are those against their lives, bodies, health, or reputation.

Those against the *life* of the individual are deemed *public wrongs*, and will be spoken of under that head.

Those

Those against his *body* are *threats*, *assault*, *battery*, *wounding*, or *maiming*.

Injuries against his *health*, are by selling bad provisions, and by the exercise of unwholesome trades.

His *reputation* may be injured by slanderous words, by libels, or by malicious prosecutions.

His *personal liberty* may be violated by false imprisonment, which is esteemed both a public and private wrong. So tenacious have the laws of England been of personal liberty, that no less than four writs may be had to procure a remedy; but the chief of these is the celebrated writ of *habeas corpus*, a writ which checks all manner of illegal confinement, and is one of our most effectual securities for personal liberty.

Injuries may be offered to a man in his relative capacity; as a *husband*, by taking away his wife, by adultery, and by ill-treating her; as a *parent*, by taking away his children; as a *guardian*, by taking away his ward; and as a *master*, by taking away his servant, or by beating or confining him.

Injuries to *property* are either *personal* or *real*.

Personal property is either in *possession* or *action*.

Property in *possession* may be injured two ways—by being taken away, and by being damaged.

Property in *action* is such as is founded on and arises from *contracts* which are either express or implied. This article branches out in a great variety of heads.

Injuries to real property are, 1. Ouster; 2. Trespass; 3. Nuisance; 4. Waste; 5. Substraction; 6. Disturbance.

1. *Ouster* is the getting actual possession of the lands or hereditaments of another, and obliging him to seek a remedy and gain possession by law.

This ouster may be either for freehold or chattels real.

2. *Trespass* is an entry into another man's grounds without lawful authority.

3. *Nuisances* are many; and, in the eye of the law, this word bears the same import as in common discourse.

4. *Waste* is a destruction of the lands or tenements.

5. *Substraction* is the neglecting to perform such suit, duty, custom, or service, as may be due.

6. *Disturbance* is the hindering or disquieting the owner in the regular and lawful enjoyment of his property.

Each of these injuries have, in the eye of the law and the custom of the courts, their several remedies, which are to be sought for in the various courts of law, and will be hereafter mentioned; but it may be first necessary to notice the *Injuries proceeding from or affecting the Crown.*

It is a maxim in the English law, that the king can do no wrong; that is, if any wrong is done by the executive power, his ministers are accountable: if, therefore, the king shall appear to have injured the private right of the subject, although no action will lie against the sovereign, yet the law has provided a remedy by petition of right, or by plea of right; and if the right be determined against the crown, the crown is instantly, by such judgment, put out of possession.

In injuries which the crown may suffer from a subject, redress may be had by common law actions, by inquest of office, by writ in Chancery, by information, by writ of *quo warranto*, and by writ of *mandamus*; each of which methods of proceeding is adapted to particular injuries.

To

To enter further into explanations on these heads would be tedious, and perhaps useless, to the class of readers for whom this work is intended; but the mode by which they are redressed will be, perhaps, a more pleasing research.

When a person has received any injury from another, for which the law has not pointed out a method by which he may redress himself; he must necessarily have recourse to one of the courts of law, and pursue such a course as the customs of that court direct. He must therefore bring a suit or action against his opponent; and in all cases the first operation is by suing out a *writ*, of which there are a great variety, adapted to the several species of wrongs which the law has provided for. After the issue, service, and return of the writ, further proceedings are had by means of what are called *special pleadings*; which are certain forms, prescribed by the courts, to bring the suit or action to such a period as to be ready for trial; when the cause is said to be *at issue*.

The trials of causes in England are by means of a JURY, which is the boast and glory of English jurisprudence, to which this country owes, in a great degree, the preservation of its liberties, and which has not been practised for a long period of time in any other country in Europe, till the late revolutions.

Trial by jury, called also trial *per pais*, or by the country, has been used time out of mind, and seems coëval with the government.

These trials are of two kinds, *ordinary* and *extraordinary*.

The ordinary juries are either *special* or *common*.

Special juries were introduced in such causes as were thought of too great consequence to be discussed by ordinary jurymen, or when the sheriff was suspected

pected of partiality. This officer, therefore, must in this case attend the proper officer with his list of freeholders, and select indifferently forty-eight jurymen, in presence of the attornies on both sides, each of which are to object or strike off twelve, and the remaining twenty-four are returned upon what is called the pannel. Either party in a cause may, upon motion, have a special jury, on paying the extraordinary expense.

A *common* jury is returned not for one trial only, but to try every cause at the same assize. They must not be less than forty-eight, or more than seventy-two; and their names being written on tickets, are put into a box or glass, and the twelve first drawn are sworn on the jury, unless absent, *challenged*, or excused, or unless a previous view of the lands, houses, or place in question, shall be thought necessary; in which case six of the jury, agreed to by the parties, are sworn, and sent to view the premises, and these six always form a part of the twelve.

Challenges are exceptions to the jury, which either party has a right to make; and these are either of the *array*, or to the *poll*.

Challenges to the *array* are exceptions to the whole jury, on account of partiality or default in the sheriff or his under-sheriff. The array may be challenged also by an alien, being party to the suit, who has a right to have one half the jury composed of aliens; but if both parties are aliens, as no partiality can be suspected, all the jury may be denizens.

Challenges to polls are exceptions to particular jurymen; and these challenges are reduced to these heads: if he be a lord of parliament, an alien born, or deficient in estate to qualify him to be a juryman; suspicion of bias or partiality, or having been convicted

victed of some infamous crime or misdemeanor. There are also particular cases in which a juryman may plead an excuse; but all these are to be determined by the judge who tries the cause.

If from the jury summoned a sufficient number do not appear, either party may pray a *tales*, or a supply of jurymen, to make up the number from persons present in court.

As soon as twelve jurymen are found, they are separately sworn *well and truly to try the issue between the parties, and to give a true verdict according to the evidence.* The trial then begins.

The pleadings are begun by the counsel on that side which holds the affirmative, who opens the case briefly to the judge and jury: the nature of the case, and the evidence to be produced, are then laid before them by another counsel; and then the evidences are examined: when that is finished, the party on the other side is heard by his counsel, and his evidence examined; which done, if any evidence is examined, the party who opened is heard in reply.

The law of evidence consists of numberless niceties and distinctions. Evidence is either *written* or *parol*. *Written* evidence consists of records, deeds of thirty years standing, modern deeds, and other writings; all which must be verified by parol evidence.

Parol evidence is that of persons brought into court by a writ, commanding them to appear in court, under penalty of one hundred pounds; which summons is called a *subpœna*. All persons who have the use of their reason and are not infamous, or interested in the event of the cause, are competent witnesses, and the jury will judge of the credibility of their testimony. An attorney

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employed in the cause cannot be a witness, except as to matter of fact.

One witness is sufficient, in general, to prove a single fact. Positive proof is always required when it can be had; and when not, circumstantial evidence, or probable presumption, is allowed. The oath administered to the witness is, that he shall speak *the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.*

The evidence being gone through, the judge sums up the whole, and makes such remarks as he thinks necessary, giving his opinion in matters of law; and the jury then give their verdict. If the matter requires deliberation, they retire from the bar, and are to be kept without meat, drink, fire, or candle, unless by permission of the judge, until they are unanimously agreed in their verdict.

A *verdict* is the opinion of the jury, in which they declare they find an issue for the plaintiff or defendant; if for the plaintiff, they fix the quantity of damages.

Sometimes, if there arises any difficulty in point of law, they find what is called a special verdict; in which they state the facts as they find them, and pray the advice of the court, conditionally, that, if the court shall be of such an opinion, they find for the plaintiff; if otherwise, for the defendant. The jury also, sometimes, find a special verdict for the plaintiff, subject to the opinion of the court on a special case, stated by the counsel on both sides.

When a jury have given their verdict, it is recorded in court, and they are discharged.

After *trial* the *judgment* follows; but this may be either suspended or arrested; for it cannot be entered up but during term, and upon notice to the party.

Judgments

Judgments are suspended by the court granting a new trial, which they may do for various causes, but it must be for some matter foreign to the record. Judgment is arrested for causes which appear on the face of the record. But if judgment is not suspended or arrested within the first four days of the next term, it is entered.

Judgments are the sentence of the law, pronounced by the court, and are of four sorts:

1. Where the facts are confessed by the parties, and the law determined by the court.

2. Where the law is admitted by the parties, and the facts disputed; which makes the verdict of a jury necessary.

3. Where the fact and law are admitted by the defendant; and this is called judgment by confession or default.

4. Where the plaintiff abandons his suit; which is called a *nonsuit*.

To these judgments the costs of the suit are also added, which generally fall on the losing party; but the king neither pays nor receives costs. Executors and administrators, suing in right of the deceased persons, pay no costs. Paupers, or such as will swear themselves not worth five pounds, are allowed writs gratis, and have counsel and attornies assigned them without fee.

After judgment is entered, execution of that judgment follows, unless the party condemned thinks himself aggrieved by the proceedings, and then he has his remedy to reverse them by certain writs, in the nature of *appeals*.

Writs of appeal are of four sorts:

Writs of *attaint*, to inquire whether the jury gave a false verdict; but these are now in disuse.

Writs of *deceit*, to reverse a judgment obtained in the court of common pleas by fraud or collusion.

But the principal mode of redress after judgment is by *writ of error*, and must arise upon matter of law, standing upon the face of the proceedings.

When a person brings a writ of error to reverse the judgment of any superior court, he must find substantial pledges or bail to secure the payment of costs and damages.

Writs of error lie from the inferior courts of England into the king's bench, and not into the common pleas: they may be brought from the common pleas into the king's bench, and from the king's bench are removable to the house of lords. From the exchequer a writ of error may go to the house of lords. From proceedings in the king's bench writs of error lie to the exchequer chamber, before the justices of the common pleas and barons of the exchequer, and thence to the house of lords.

Each court of appeal may reverse or confirm the judgments of the inferior courts, but none are final but those of the house of peers.

Execution is the last stage of a suit at law, and is the putting the sentence of the law in force; and the law has a variety of writs for that purpose; which writs direct the seizure of the defendant's goods or body, the former to be sold, and the latter to be kept until the plaintiff is satisfied.

CHAP. XV.—*Of public Wrongs, and their Punishment.*

Public wrongs, which may also be denominated *crimes* and *misdemeanors,* are the objects of the criminal laws of every country. In speaking of them the subject naturally divides into four heads: 1. The general nature of crimes and punishments; 2. The persons capable of committing them; 3. Who are principals to crimes, and who only accessaries; 4. The several species of crimes acknowledged

ledged by the laws of England, and the punishment annexed to them.

In this country the discussions of crimes are called *pleas of the crown*, because the king is supposed in law to be the person injured by every attack on the public rights of the community.

A *crime* is an act committed in violation of a public law, as likewise are *misdemeanors*; the first word being used to denominate offences of a deeper dye, and the latter smaller faults.

Public wrongs are the breach of public rights and duties; and in taking cognizance of them the law of England has a double view—to redress the party injured, and to deter others from the violation of the laws in future.

Punishments are the evils inflicted by law for crimes. The right of punishing in an uncivilized state is vested in every individual; but in a civilized state this right is vested in the sovereign power. The law, therefore, by which a man suffers is part of the contract by which they claim the benefit of society; it was calculated for and has contributed to their security. The end of punishments is chiefly to guard against the commission of the like offences, and is effected (1.) by amendment of the offender, as by corporal punishment, fine, and exile for a stated time; (2.) to deter others by the example of ignominious punishments; and (3.) by depriving the party injuring of the power of doing future mischief. The wisdom of the legislature is always shewn in proportioning the punishment as near as possible to the nature of the crime.

Persons capable of committing crimes are all those who are not expressly defined and exempted by the laws; and this exemption generally arises from want of *will*, as an involuntary act has no claim to merit, and ought not to incur guilt.

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The will cannot join in the act where there is a defect of understanding; where the understanding is not called forth; where the action is compelled by outward force and violence.

Under the first class may be reckoned *infancy* or nonage. This is a privilege in some cases, for common misdemeanors, as to fine and imprisonment, even to the age of twenty-one; but for riot, breach of the peace, or beating, an infant above fourteen is liable to suffer. In capital crimes the law is still more circumspect, and the degree of guilt is measured by the delinquent's judgment, rather than by his age.

Idiots and lunatics are excused from the punishment of crimes on account of their defect of understanding.

Where a man commits an unlawful act by misfortune or chance, he is excused, that is, provided the action in which he was engaged is lawful; but if unlawful, ignorance does not exculpate.

Where a person commits an unlawful act, intending to do a lawful one, it is held to be a defect of will; but this ignorance must be as to the fact only, for *ignorance of law* is no defence in criminal cases.

Compulsion and necessity is chiefly regarded in the case of a wife who commits certain crimes in company with her husband; here the law supposes she acted by compulsion and the coercion of her husband. But this is no excuse in cases of murder, treason, or crimes prohibited by the law of nature.

Offences may be divided into crimes against God and religion, against the law of nations against the sovereign or the government, against the public, and against individuals.

Crimes against religion are those which affect the established church; as, reviling its ordinances, nonconformity, which, although much indulged by the

the tolerating principle of the English law, is still held a crime. It were to be wished that a more general toleration were allowed to all denominations of Christians; those of the Romish church, we are happy to say, have lately received much indulgence from the legislature.

There exist two acts, called the *corporation* and *test* acts, calculated to preserve the preponderance of the established church, to procure the repeal of which many attempts have been made, but hitherto without success.

The law also has decreed punishments for *blasphemy*, or denying the existence of a Supreme Being or his providence; for *swearing* and *cursing*; against *religious impostors*; against *simony*, or a corrupt disposal of ecclesiastical benefices; against profanation of the sabbath, drunkenness and lewdness.

Offences against the law of nations are of high importance, as the breach of these laws may, and often has occasioned bloody and destructive wars. These offences are of three kinds—*violation of safe-conducts and passports*, *infringement of the rights of ambassadors*, and *piracy*, or robbing on the high seas. The latter crime is punished by the death of the offender.

Offences against the king are, first,

High treason, which, in the eye of the law, is deemed the highest crime a man can commit. Formerly there was a great latitude left with the judges to determine what was treason; but this being found inconvenient, the statute of 25 Edward III. was made, declaring that certain offences, and those only, should be deemed high treason, which are therein enumerated; as,

1. To compass the death of the king, queen, or their eldest son. 2. To violate the king's companion

or eldest daughter, or the wife of his son and heir. 3. To levy war against the king in his realm. 4. To adhere to the king's enemies. 5. To counterfeit the king's great or privy seal. 6. To counterfeit the coin; and, 7. To slay certain high officers.

Since this statute the parliament have been very tender in extending the heads of this crime, which has been done in a few cases only; as, 1. In the case of papists, who, during the reformation, were declared guilty of treason for certain crimes. 2. In case of counterfeiting the coin. 3. In support of the Protestant succession; and, 4. by a very recent act, 36 George III. to be in force for the life of this king, a very considerable addition is made to the number of treasons.

The punishment of high treason is solemn and terrible: the offender is drawn to the gallows on a hurdle or sledge, hanged by the neck, and then cut down alive, his head cut off, his body quartered; and the quarters are to be at the king's disposal. Women are excused part of these punishments, and are hanged until they are dead.

Offences injurious to the king's prerogative are such as relate to coin, which do not amount to treason; against his council, an attempt to kill, or to assault, strike, or wound any of his privy council, is punishable by death; serving foreign states without the king's license; embezzling or destroying the king's stores; desertion from his army or navy: most of which crimes are punishable by death.

Other offences against the king are *misprision* and *contempt*; as

Misprision of treason, or concealment of the knowledge of any treason; misprision or concealment of felony; mal-administration of persons in public trust or employment; refusing to assist the king,

king, which is deemed a contempt of his prerogative; contempt of his person and government; contempt of his title, of his palaces, and courts of justice.

Offences against public justice are,

1. Embezzling *records* or falsifying proceedings of a court of judicature; for a jailer to oblige a prisoner by hard usage to accuse another, or turn evidence; to obstruct the execution of a lawful process; to escape from officers legally arresting a person; to break out of prison; to rescue a person from the hands of justice; to return from transportation before the expiration of the term; to take a reward for *helping* a person to his *stolen goods*; to receive stolen goods, knowing them to be such; to take back stolen goods, upon agreement not to prosecute; this is called *theft-bote*; *barratry*, or exciting suits and quarrels between the king's subjects, either at law or otherwise; *maintenance*, or intermeddling in a suit in which a person has no concern; *champerty*, or making a bargain to divide what may be gained by a suit at law; *compounding* or taking money not to prosecute on a penal law; a conspiracy to indict an innocent man of a crime; perjury, or giving false evidence; *bribery*, or an officer of justice accepting a reward to influence his behaviour in his office; *embracery*, or any attempt to influence a jury by promises, persuasions, money, &c.; *negligence* in public officers; *oppression* in magistrates; and, lastly, *extortion*, or an officer unlawfully taking money under colour of his office.

Offences against the public peace are,

Riotous assembling of twelve persons or more. The spirit of the laws respecting riotous assembling was greatly extended by an act of 36 George III. Appearing armed or going disguised in any enclosed forest or place, to hunt or kill, or steal deer, &c.; sending

sending threatening letters; maliciously damaging any banks, sluices, or other works on navigable rivers; destroying turnpike-gates, toll-houses, or weighing-engines; *affrays*, or fighting, to the terror of the king's subjects; *unlawful assemblies*, or where three or more persons meet together to do any unlawful act; *tumultuous petitioning*, when more than ten persons present a petition; *forcible entry* and *detainer*, or the keeping possession of lands and tenements by menace, force and arms; riding or going abroad with dangerous weapons; *spreading false news*, to make discord between the king and nobility; pretended prophecies, and challenges to fight; *libels*, or any writing or picture of an immoral tendency.

Offences against public trade are,

Owling, or transporting wool and sheep out of the kingdom, so called from its being usually carried on in the night; *smuggling*, or the offence of importing goods without paying the duties imposed by law; fraudulent bankruptcy; usury, or lending money at more than the interest fixed by law; cheating; *forestalling*, which is the buying victuals coming to market, or dissuading persons from bringing their goods, to enhance the price; *regrating*, or buying corn or other dead victuals, and selling it again in the market or within four miles, at an advanced price; *engrossing*, or buying up large quantities of provisions to sell again; *monopolizing* is the same offence practised in other articles of trade; exercising a trade in a town without serving an apprenticeship of seven years; and lastly, seducing artificers to settle abroad.

Offences against the public health are,

Breaking quarantine. Quarantine is a period fixed by law for a ship coming from parts infected with the plague to lie in a fixed place before she can

can have communication with the shore. Persons escaping from these places are punishable with death.

Selling unwholesome provisions is another offence against the public health.

Offences against the public police or economy are,

Solemnizing clandestine marriages; making a false entry of a marriage register; *bigamy*, or being married to more than one wife at a time; *common nuisances*, as annoyances of bridges, highways, and public rivers; disorderly inns or alehouses, gaming-houses, and unlicensed playhouses; making fireworks, or throwing them in the street; idleness and vagrants; gaming; and, lastly, destroying such beasts and fowls as are denominated game.

Offences against individuals are,

Homicide, which is the dreadful crime of taking away the life of a fellow-creature: this the law has, with great wisdom, divided into *justifiable*, *excusable*, and *felonious*.

Justifiable homicide is where a person kills another from unavoidable necessity; where an officer kills a person who resists in the execution of his office, or a person kills another in endeavouring to prevent the commission of any atrocious crime. In all these cases the slayer is in no kind of fault, and therefore it is properly called justifiable homicide.

Excusable homicide is where a person takes away the life of another by any misadventure, or from a motive of self-defence.

Felonious homicide, or murder, is where a man slays another without any justification or excuse.

Self-murder is a species of this homicide, and the crime may attach on more than the unhappy

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object himself; for if one person persuades another to kill himself, the adviser is guilty of murder. As the law cannot act on the person of the self-murderer, it has decreed a punishment upon his reputation and fortune, by directing an ignominious burial of his body in the highway, that a stake shall be driven through it, and a forfeiture of his fortune.

Homicide may also be distinguished into *murder* and *manslaughter*.

Manslaughter is where a man unlawfully kills another without any malicious intent.

Murder is where the malicious intent is proved to the satisfaction of the jury.

The punishment of these two crimes of homicide is very different: for manslaughter the offender is to be burnt in the hand, or suffer such punishment as the court shall inflict. And for murder, the law directs that the person guilty shall be executed on the next day but one after the sentence, and his body delivered to the surgeons to be dissected and anatomized.

Offences against the persons of individuals.

Of these, some are felonious and others only misdemeanors. The felonious are,

Maiming, or maliciously shooting at any person.

Forcible abduction and marriage of an heiress.

Rape, or deflowering a woman by force.

The inferior misdemeanors are,

Assault, *battery*, *wounding*, *false imprisonment*, and *kidnapping*.

Offences against the habitation of individuals are,

Arson, or maliciously burning a house or out-house.

Burglary, or nocturnal housebreaking.

Offences

Offences against private property are,

Larceny or theft, in which the law makes many distinctions:

Malicious mischief, or doing damage to another.

Forgery, or fraudulent making or uttering a writing to the prejudice of another man.

Such is the dreadful catalogue of crimes acknowledged by the law, for each of which there is a specific punishment; but to enter into a detail of them, would extend this chapter to too great a length. It therefore remains to be shewn what means the wisdom of the law of England has pointed out to bring offenders to justice.

When a crime has been committed, the first step is to secure the person of the offender; and this may be done two ways.

If an officer of justice sees the offence committed, he may take the offender into custody by virtue of his office. Or otherwise, any person making oath of the commission of the offence before a magistrate, will authorize such magistrate to issue a warrant for apprehending him: or a magistrate may even issue a warrant to take a person into custody upon suspicion.

As soon as an offender is taken, he is to be sent to the common jail, unless he can find persons to be bound in a certain sum to the king, that he shall appear in the proper court, to answer the offence. Some offences however are not bailable, and of this it is the duty of the magistrate to judge.

The appearance of the offender being thus secured, the business must rest until the holding of the court in which he is to be brought to trial. At this sitting or session of the court there are two juries summoned: one called the grand jury, before whom evidence is given of the crime; and it is the duty of this jury to consider whether there is suffi-

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cient proof of guilt to send the person complained of to the petit jury for trial.

The grand jury must consist of twelve men and upwards, who, in the assizes of a county, must all be freeholders, and twelve at least must be of opinion that the evidence is sufficient. The charge against the prisoner is drawn up in writing, and is called a bill of indictment; and if the jury think the facts proved, they declare it a true bill, and the accused must take his trial; if otherwise, they return the bill *ignoramus*, and the offender and his bail are discharged from their recognizances.

A bill of indictment must set forth the christian and surname, the addition of his degree in life, and his town and county, if known, accompanied with some other particulars required by law. This bill is sent to the court where the prisoner is to be tried. And the prisoner being put to the bar, must plead guilty or not guilty; if the latter, a jury being summoned by the sheriff, twelve of them are sworn. These the prisoner may challenge, and the counsel acting for the crown has the same privilege. The prisoner may challenge *peremptorily*, or without assigning a cause, thirty-five jurymen, except in certain cases of felony, where he can only challenge twenty. The king cannot challenge any juryman without assigning a cause.

When the jury are sworn, the indictment is opened, and the witnesses examined on the part of the king or prosecution; which being done, the prisoner is called on for his defence, and his witnesses are likewise examined; after which, the judge proceeds to sum up the evidence, and to direct the jury in any point of law. The jury then consider their verdict; and if they find the offender not guilty, he is immediately discharged, and cannot be tried again for the same offence. If

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the prisoner is convicted or found guilty, or if he pleads guilty without trial, he must remain to receive judgment.

In cases of importance counsel are called in, but no prisoner is to be allowed counsel in a capital crime, unless on some point of law. In cases of high treason, the prisoner is to have counsel assigned him by the court, to have a copy of his indictment, a list of the jury, and a list of evidences delivered to him a certain number of days before the trial; and has also a compulsive process granted, to compel his witnesses to appear.

There are a multitude of crimes in the English law, by which a man incurs the penalty of death, but from which he may be saved by what is called the benefit of clergy. In old times, when the church trampled the crown and civil magistrates under its feet, a churchman could not be punished for any crime if he pleaded his cloth; and this was called taking the *benefit of clergy*; the only proof of which, required in the days of our forefathers' ignorance, was to exhibit a certain proof of learning in court. As learning extended, the laity were enabled to give this proof, and thus were equally entitled to this benefit, till it became necessary to restrain it by certain statutes. The benefit of clergy, where not taken away by act, still remains, and may be claimed for the first offence by all persons whatever; the clergy may still plead it as often as they please. Persons pleading their clergy, should be burnt in the hand; but peers of the realm are exempted from this for the first offence.

Judgment must follow conviction, unless the prisoner can offer any exception to the indictment in *arrest* or stay of judgment, or shall produce a pardon from the king.

Judgment,

Judgment, or the sentence, as it is commonly called, is pronounced by the judge; and sentence of death immediately works what in the language of the law is called *attainder*, by which an offender forfeits his estates; in some cases only his personal estate; but in others, as high treason, both his real and personal estates.

Judgment may however be *reversed*, and the consequences averted by writ of error, by act of parliament, or by the king's pardon; or it may be suspended by a *reprieve*. If neither of these events take place, the prisoner must remain to receive the execution of his sentence.

OF THE GOVERNMENT, OR KING'S EXECUTIVE POWER.

CHAP. XVI.—*Power vested in the King—how distributed—Of the Cabinet Council—His Houſehold.*

The legislative power of the king has been already explained; his executive power has also been mentioned; it remains now to explain the latter, which will be done under the following heads:

As invested with the power of making war, peace, and treaties;—as the fountain of honour;—as head of the church;—as distributor of justice;—as head of the army and navy;—as the chief of the revenue;—as arbiter of commerce and regulator of coin.

In transacting all this arduous business, he is assisted by his council already mentioned, and called the privy council; but for various reasons it has been judged necessary to transact the most import-

ant business, and that which requires secrecy, by means of a few of the privy council who hold the great offices of state, and are called the cabinet council. This is a modern institution; and in point of the numbers which have composed it, there have been great fluctuations. The members of the present cabinet are, the lord chancellor, the lord president of the council, the lord privy seal, the three secretaries of state, the first lord of the admiralty, the master general of the ordnance, the chancellor of the exchequer, and the chancellor of the dutchy of Lancaster; but the last seems to have been introduced not in consideration of office, but of the man who now holds it. In this council almost every affair of moment is settled.

For the purpose of supporting the king's dignity, and paying the expenses attending the same, the kings of England have an allowance settled on them by parliament for that purpose, generally at the beginning of their reign, and for life. The sum settled on his present majesty was at first 800,000*l.* but is now increased to 900,000*l.* per annum, out of which he receives 60,000*l.* for his privy purse, and 50,000*l.* more is appropriated for the queen's expenses: the rest is allotted to support what may be strictly called the expenses of his household, and the charge of ambassadors, envoys, &c. to grant pensions for old services, salaries for the judges and officers of state, &c.

The support of a king of England is unavoidably expensive, his rank among the princes of Europe requiring extraordinary state, the establishment for which is called his *household*, and is thus regulated:

Over one department of the household is a high officer called a lord chamberlain, who from his rank takes precedence of all of his own degree, who has

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an ample salary and allowances, and the nomination of most of the officers in his department.

His duty is to attend the king on all occasions, bearing the badge of his office, which is a white staff, and he has superintendence over all the officers above stairs, except those of the bed-chamber.

His more immediate officers are, a vice-chamberlain, who does his duty in case of unavoidable absence, a secretary, and various clerks, who, under his direction, issue the necessary orders.

In the chamberlain's list of officers are also twelve noblemen called lords of the bed-chamber, one of whom attends the king at court, to the parliament, and on all public occasions; at their head is an officer called groom of the stole.

There are also several gentlemen denominated *grooms of the bed-chamber*, who attend in turn.

A number of gentlemen besides attend the king, called gentlemen of the privy chamber (their number used to be forty-eight), who serve the king at their own charge; twelve of them should wait quarterly, and two of them should sleep each night in the privy chamber. These are preferred to offices of profit as occasion offers.

To introduce foreign princes, ambassadors, &c. and on other public occasions, there is an officer called *master of the ceremonies*, an assistant and a marshal of the ceremonies under him.

The other officers under the chamberlain are, four gentlemen ushers of the privy chamber, four gentlemen ushers daily waiters, the first of which is usually the usher of the black rod, four grooms of the privy chamber, with a large number of inferior officers, called grooms of the privy chamber, gentlemen ushers, quarterly waiters, pages of the presence chamber, grooms of the great chamber, pages of the back stairs, and pages of the bed-chamber.

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In the king's library, also under the lord chamberlain, are a librarian, clerk, and porter.

The officers of the king's wardrobe have the care of his clothes: these consist of a master, clerks, and messengers, and wardrobe-keepers, at each palace. The master of the robes is often a peer, and has a salary annexed, with a groom, clerk, and a messenger under him.

To assist in ceremonies, are several officers called sergeants at arms. The king's messengers were formerly all under the lord chamberlain, but most of them have lately been put under the office to which they are attached, and the chamberlain has now under him only those employed in his office.

The lord chamberlain being by act of parliament invested with a power to license plays, has under him for that purpose an examiner of plays. Subordinate to this officer is also the poet laureat.

The king's band of music is considerable, consisting of a master, a conductor, and about twenty-five musicians, one of whom is styled sergeant trumpeter, all with salaries.

The medical and surgical attendants on the king are, four physicians in ordinary, and three extraordinary, the latter are only paid when they attend; two oculists and two apothecaries; two sergeant surgeons, and two surgeons to the person; an aurist operator, and three dentists; with physician, surgeon, and apothecaries to the household. Subordinate to the chamberlain, are also the housekeepers of the various palaces, who have good salaries and emoluments.

The ecclesiastical establishment of the household is large. The king has an almoner, usually the archbishop of York, who has the distribution of the charities; a sub-almoner, a dean of the chapel, and a confessor of the household; a clerk of the

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king's closet, and two deputy clerks: fifty-two chaplains in ordinary, four or five of whom are in waiting for each month, and one is appointed to preach in the chapel royal monthly: these, with ten priests in ordinary, sixteen gentlemen of the chapel royal, who sing, and ten children educated also for singing, with organists and inferior officers, form the establishment in St. James's. Chaplains are also appointed for the king's other chapels, at Whitehall, Windsor, &c. and French, Dutch, and German chaplains, for the service in those respective languages.

Besides the horse and foot guards, who do duty outside the king's palaces, and who are paid as a part of the army, the king has also two other guards of honour, both at first instituted by Henry VII.

1. The honourable band of gentlemen pensioners, whose office is to attend the king's person in a rich uniform, with gilt battle-axes, to and from the chapel royal, to receive him in the presence-chamber, and to attend him on all great ceremonies. The band consists of a captain, usually a nobleman of high rank, a lieutenant, a standard-bearer, and forty gentlemen, twenty of whom are in waiting at a time. To this band are annexed a clerk of the check, a paymaster, a gentleman harbinger, and messenger.

2. The other guard are styled yeomen of the guard, and consist likewise of a captain, who is also a nobleman, a lieutenant, a standard-bearer, four exons, eight ushers, and ninety-two yeomen; and the band has attached to it a clerk of the check. These wait above stairs in what is called the guard-chamber. These are the only persons about the king who appear still in the old dress of

their

their institution. The warders of the Tower bear the same dress.

The captains of these two bands, and the colonels of the two troops of horse-guards, are distinguished by what are called *gold sticks*; that is, when on duty they carry a large cane with a distinguished gold head. The exons of the yeomen of the guard bear a cane with a silver head, and are therefore called *silver sticks*.

The lord steward of the household has the superintendence of all the officers in the palace *below* stairs, and has under him a treasurer of the household, a comptroller of the household, a paymaster, two clerks comptrollers, with under clerks, and a secretary.

Subordinate to him are the pantry, butlery, wine-cellar, ewry, spicery, wood-yard, confectionary, pastry, silver and pewter sculleries, with the porters and watchmen, also the whole establishment of the kitchen, and the gardeners; and the lord steward has the appointment of all the tradesmen connected with that office. Under him also is the marshalsea court of the palace, which consists of a knight marshal, a steward, two prothonotaries, four counsel, and six attornies, who take cognizance of all offences committed within the *verge* or district of the king's palace. There is also a coroner of the *verge*.

Another great officer has the charge of the king's stables and stud, and is called *master of the horse*. Under him is an officer called clerk martial, who is usually the first equery, and four other equeries, four pages of honour, a clerk of the stables, an equery of the crown stables, two yeomen riders, with a number of coachmen, footmen, grooms, and other necessary officers. There is likewise a

master

master of the hounds, and a hunting establishment.

The queen has also her separate establishment, consisting of a chamberlain, a vice-chamberlain, a mistress of the robes, and six other ladies of the bed-chamber, six maids of honour, who from their places rank as barons' daughters, six bed-chamber women, with a variety of other officers; a master of the horse, with equeries, &c. under him. The queen being in the eye of the law a separate person from the king, has always her own attorney and solicitor general.

The master of the horse to the king and queen are allowed the use of the royal carriages and liveries.

For the care of the king's parks there are a number of rangers and keepers appointed, one for each, usually noblemen, and sometimes princes of the blood.

For the care and repairs of the king's houses, there is an establishment called the board of works, consisting of a surveyor general, inspector and clerks, and officers called clerks of the works, appointed to each of the king's palaces.

Chap. XVII.—*Of the King, as invested with the Power of making War, Peace, and Treaties—Of the Secretary of State's Office.*

It is an undoubted privilege of the monarch to make or declare war, conclude peace, and make treaties.

In the former he is under no control but the refusal of the parliament to grant the necessary supplies to carry it on; and these, from the influence the crown has in the two houses of parliament, are not likely to be withheld. When the king declares war publicly, he makes use of his heralds at arms

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(an institution which will be hereafter noticed) to publish the same; and it is afterwards made public in the different corporations by the usual municipal officers of such corporations.

In making peace and treaties, the king employs his ambassadors, specially commissioned for that purpose, and usually styled ambassadors extraordinary. To maintain peace and friendship with foreign princes and potentates, ministers are kept generally resident at the various courts of Europe; and the kings and princes of Europe have also their ministers here, who have ample salaries to support the dignity of the princes or powers they represent: they have also different denominations according to the business in which they are employed, as envoys extraordinary, ministers plenipotentiary, or simply ministers, residents, &c. All these ministers correspond with, and take their instructions from the secretary of state for foreign affairs.

The office of secretary of state is very ancient, but the distribution of the business has been often altered. Not long since the office was divided into two departments, one for southern, and one for northern affairs; and the home and plantation business was transacted indiscriminately by both officers. During the contest with America, a third secretary was added for American affairs; but this was abolished soon after the war. However, the old routine of business being found inconvenient, and the late war causing a great increase, a new arrangement took place; a third secretary was appointed, and the business of the office divided among the three. One secretary took the home department, a second the war, (since the last peace changed into the colony department,) and the third the foreign, the establishment of which alone comes

properly

properly under this section: but as the secretaries office is, properly speaking, one office, the duty of each department will be here described.

The business of this office consists in receiving intelligence, conducting correspondence, issuing warrants, and managing transactions relative to the executive business of the British empire; and the duty of the principal secretaries is to lay all such business before the king, to take his commands, and to issue the necessary orders accordingly.

To the secretary for the home department belongs all such business as respects the British dominions, and the four states of Barbary.

This office consists of a principal secretary, two under secretaries, a chief, four senior, and many junior clerks, a *precis* writer, and a keeper of the papers; and as the business of this office takes in whatever respects the peace or police of the kingdom, two law officers have been lately added. There are also a chief and several inferior clerks for colony affairs.

The colony department consists of a principal secretary, an under secretary, a chief and inferior clerks. The business of this office is known by its title.

The great burden of business lies on the principal secretary for foreign affairs, who has under him two under secretaries, two senior and many assistant clerks, *precis* writer, and a collector of state-papers. The gazette writer and his deputy, the secretary for the Latin language, a decipherer of letters, and an interpreter of the oriental languages, belong to this office. There are also a keeper of state-papers and two deputies.

The duty of the under secretaries is to attend the execution of all orders from the principal secretaries, to prepare draughts of letters and

instructions,

instructions, to transact all confidential business, and to superintend the duties of the office.

The chief clerk distributes the ordinary business, sees all warrants and writings duly prepared, signed, and delivered: he acts also as accountant to the office. The business is executed by the clerks, to whom he assigns it.

The secretary for foreign affairs has the whole correspondence with the king's ambassadors, &c. in foreign parts, and with the ambassadors, envoys, &c. of foreign princes and potentates resident here. He has the appointment of all the consuls in foreign parts, except to Barbary; and all the messengers who are attached to the office, are likewise in his appointment.

CHAP. XVIII.—*Of the King as the Fountain of Honour.*

We have already mentioned that the king is the only fountain of honour, and that no admittance can now be had even into the house of lords but by his patent. It might be supposed that every peer would take rank according to the date of his patent; but this is confined to those only of the degree of a baron, there being four other orders of nobility which the king can bestow, and which, although they do not give any additional privileges, confer additional rank.

The method by which barons have obtained their rank and titles has been already shewn: but on many of these the kings of England have bestowed a superior degree, as viscount, earl, marquis, and duke.

A viscount, the next dignity above a baron, was first created by Henry VI.; and this has always been used as an arbitrary title of honour, having never any duty annexed.

Not so of an *earl*, which is a title of nobility so ancient that its original cannot be clearly traced out. The title was anciently annexed to an office. The earls, or, as the Saxons called them, *earldermen*, and as the Normans *counts*, had the superintendence of their county: but it is now merely a title of honour, and bestows rank next immediately above viscounts. In all writs and commissions, when the king mentions any one of the rank of an earl, he styles him *trusty and well-beloved cousin*; an appellation used by Henry IV. who, we are told, was related to every earl then in the kingdom: and although the original cause of using this term has ceased, yet the custom is still continued. The daughters of earls have the title of lady given them before their christian names.

A title next above earl is marquis; to this also an office and duty was once annexed, which was to guard the frontiers or limits of the kingdom, called *marches*, as those near Wales and Scotland, while those countries were hostile. Henry VIII. by act abolished the authority, and the dignity remains a title of honour only. The younger sons of marquises, and their daughters, have, by custom, the title of lord and lady added to their christian names.

The highest order of nobility are the dukes; these among the Saxons were styled *duces*, or leaders of armies. After the Norman conquest the kings themselves were only styled *dukes* of Normandy, and were therefore unwilling to bestow an equal title on subjects, till Edward III. created his son duke of Cornwall. The dignity was then in general confined to the royal family; and in the reign of Elizabeth the title became extinct, but was revived by her successor.

These are all the titles of honour of peers; and none

none can be created to take rank of them, as their precedency is fixed by act of parliament. The present monarch conceives so highly of the title of duke, that it is in future to be bestowed only on princes of the blood royal; a rule which he has not deviated from above twice during his reign.

Besides these dignities of nobility the king can confer the honour of knighthood, either in orders already existing, or by creating new ones. Of the existing orders of knighthood, the first is that of the garter, called, from its antiquity and consequence, the *most noble* order of the garter. This was first instituted by Edward III. for a sovereign and twenty-five knights companions: a number which was never deviated from since the first institution till a few years since, when, in order to oblige several noblemen desirous of that honour, a statute was passed, by which the king's sons are not to be accounted part of the twenty-five knights companions.

These knights are, on the day of their election, which is made in what is called a *chapter* of the order, invested with a garter, a George, a collar, a cap with feathers, and a mantle; the two latter are worn only at coronations and feasts of the order; the collar is worn at court on particular holydays; but the garter and the George, pendent to a blue riband hung over the shoulder, are worn daily. The knights also are entitled to wear a star on the breast after they are installed, but not before, unless a prince of the blood or foreign prince, or by special grant from the king.

The next order of knighthood is a *knight banneret*; but this dignity must be conferred by the king in person in the field, under the royal banner, and in time of open war. As our kings have ceased to command their armies in the field, no knight of this order now exists.

Baronets stand next in order. This is an hereditary title, created by letters patent, and descendible to the male heirs. These knights are allowed to bear the arms of Ulster, or a hand, gules, on a white field, in some part of their arms, to distinguish them. According to their first institution, by James I. they were to support a specific number of men, to serve in the reduction of Ulster, or pay a certain sum instead thereof, amounting nearly to 1000*l.*; but now it is usual, when the king means to confer the honour on any one, for the patent to be accompanied with a sign manual from the king, acquitting the new-made knight of that payment. There are a few baronets called baronets of Nova Scotia, who bear, instead of the arms of Ulster, the arms of the province of Nova Scotia to distinguish them.

Knights of the bath was an old military order instituted by Henry IV. which afterwards became extinct, and was revived by George I. They were so called from the custom formerly used of the knights bathing the night before their creation. They are distinguished by wearing a crimson riband over their shoulder, and a badge of the order on the breast of their coats, and are entitled to add supporters to their coats of arms.

Knights bachelors, although the lowest, is the most ancient order of knighthood, and is now conferred merely by the king's laying a sword over the shoulder of the intended knight.

There is a regular scheme of precedency established for all orders of men, partly by act of 31 Henry VIII. and partly by custom, as follows:

The king and all the princes of the blood, archbishop of Canterbury, lord chancellor, archbishop of York, lord treasurer, lord president, lord privy seal, dukes, marquises, dukes' eldest sons, earls,

marquises'

marquises' eldest sons, dukes' younger sons, viscounts, earls' eldest sons, marquises' younger sons, bishops, barons, speaker of the commons, viscounts' eldest sons, earls' younger sons, barons' eldest sons, knights of the garter commoners, privy counsellors commoners, chancellor of the exchequer, chief justice of the king's bench, master of the rolls, chief justice of the common pleas, chief baron of the exchequer, justices and barons of said courts, viscounts' younger sons, barons' younger sons, baronets, knights of the bath, field and flag officers, knights bachelors, masters in chancery, doctors graduate, sergeants at law, esquires, gentlemen, citizens, and yeomen.

The title of *esquire* it is very difficult to determine with precision, for no estate can confer the rank. Camden, who was a herald, reckons four sorts: 1. The eldest sons of knights, and their eldest sons. 2. The eldest sons of the younger sons of peers. 3. Esquires created by the king's patent; but this is now disused: and, 4. Esquires, by virtue of office under the crown.

As king of Scotland, the king is also sovereign of the order of St. Andrew, or the thistle, an order founded, in 1540, by James V. king of Scotland, and revived by queen Anne in 1703. The number of knights is twelve, besides the sovereign, and the order is generally conferred on Scotch noblemen, except two of the ribands, which are usually given to English peers. The badges of this order are a green riband over the shoulder, and the image of St. Andrew pendent thereto, with a star on the left breast.

The order of St. Patrick is a recent institution, and designed for Irish nobility alone, except that the lord lieutenant of that kingdom, for the time

 being,

being, is always grand master of the order. Their number is sixteen besides the sovereign.

For the regulation of affairs of honour, the conferring coats of arms, marshalling coronations, royal marriages and christenings, and funerals of the royal family, there is a very ancient establishment called the earl marshal's or herald's office.

The earl marshal takes cognizance of all matters of arms, and acts with the assistance of the kings and heralds, who form his council, and sit, in proper habits, in the common hall of the college of heralds, which is called a court of chivalry. The office of earl marshal has been hereditary in the family of the duke of Norfolk for three hundred years; the present duke being the first Protestant of his family, is the first that has executed the office himself since the reformation.

The college consists of three *kings at arms*; the senior or principal, called *Garter*, the second called Clarencieux, and the third, Norroy; six heralds and four poursuivants, with a secretary to the earl marshal, and a register; and sometimes two or three heralds extraordinary.

Garter has the chief superintendence of all royal processions, and all processions of the order of the garter; he introduces all new peers into the house of lords, and keeps a register of them, their pedigrees and families.

The order of the thistle has a king at arms attached to it, called *lord lion*, who directs all affairs of arms and honour in Scotland. The order of the bath has also its king at arms; the order of St. Patrick, a king, called Ulster king at arms.

Chap. XIX. *Of the King as Head of the Church.*

Archbishops and bishops were formerly really elective; but the princes of Europe, by reserving to

to themselves the right of confirming these elections, and of granting the temporalities, without which the bishops could neither be consecrated nor receive their profits, have, in fact, reduced what is still called an election, to a mere nomination.

The king, therefore, now, on a vacancy of an archbishopric or bishopric, sends a license to proceed to election, but accompanies it by a letter, containing the name of the person he would have them elect; if the election is delayed above twelve days, the king may nominate by letters patent.

This election, or nomination, is signified by patent to certain bishops, requiring them to confirm, invest, and consecrate the person elected.

The king is guardian of the temporalities of a bishopric during a vacancy.

The king also can, either by letter, missive, or nomination, appoint all deans; and some of the seats in the chapters are in his gift.

He has also the presentation to certain livings; a privilege which is usually exercised by the lord chancellor.

As head of the church, the king has delegated his power to try ecclesiastical causes, and administer justice therein, which is done in the ecclesiastical courts. These courts are not courts of record.

The first is the court of convocation of the clergy, which are assembled by the king's writ. The clergy of the two provinces assemble at the same time, and divide into two houses; in the upper the archbishops and bishops sit; and, in the lower, the deans, archdeacons, and proctors for the chapters. Each house chooses a speaker. These convocations may make canons, with the king's license, censure heretical books or persons; subject, however, to an appeal to the king. This court now we believe meets only *pro forma*.

The *prerogative court* of Canterbury is held at Doctors' Commons, and is instituted for the probate of wills and granting administration: in this court all causes for proving or revoking wills must be tried before the judge of the court.

The court of *arches*, the court of *faculties*, the court of *peculiars*, the consistory court, the court of the *archdeacon*, the court of *delegates*, and the court of *commission* of *review*, are all ecclesiastical courts, and have separate and local jurisdiction.

CHAP. XX. — *Of the King as Distributor of Justice.*

That a single man cannot administer justice in every part of these extensive dominions, is obvious; but he may, by delegated powers, fully exercise that prerogative; and this the king of England does in his *courts* of *law* and *equity*, which will be now explained.

A *court* is a place where the law is judicially administered, and the *jurisdiction* of that court is the right by which that power is administered. Courts are either of record or not of record.

Courts of record are those which hold pleas, according to common law, in debt or damage of forty shillings or upwards, and of trespasses *vi et armis*, and whose acts or memorials are on parchment. A court *not of record*, is one that cannot hold such pleas, or where the acts of the court are not enrolled on parchment, as the county courts, hundred courts, courts baron. The proceedings of the former are incontrovertible evidence, which the latter are not. The former can punish by fine or imprisonment, which the latter cannot.

To these courts belong several degrees of persons, as a *judge*, or person appointed to preside at the trial of the cause; a *plaintiff*, or the person who brings

brings a complaint into the court; and a *defendant*, the person against whom such complaint is brought.

Sergeants at law are the highest order of counsel, and the court of common pleas is set apart for them only to plead. A barrister, or counsel learned in the law, is a person admitted to plead in court. The register takes the minutes of the proceedings of the court, and attornies are persons admitted as such by the court, and employed by the parties to transact their business. There are also several other officers belonging to each court, who assist in the business.

The courts of justice are opened four times a year, called terms, as Hilary term, Easter term, Trinity term, and Michaelmas term; but the court of chancery is not confined to these terms.

The parliament is the high court of the nation; and appeals, we have seen, may be carried to the house of lords from the other courts of the kingdom.

The privy council may act as a court to inquire into all crimes against the government, and to *commit* the accused, in order to his trial in the proper court.

The court of the lord high steward is a special court for the trial of a lord of parliament.

The court of chancery is divided into two departments. The *ordinary* or legal court hath jurisdiction in all personal actions, by or against any officers of this court, in matters of patent, commission of charitable uses, bankrupts, idiots, lunatics, &c.

The *extraordinary* is a court of equity, and proceeds by rules of equity and conscience; it may abate the rigour of the common law, and afford the subject relief, which he could not gain in the courts of common law.

The lord high chancellor, or lord keeper, is the chief judge in this court, and has under him twelve masters in chancery, the chief of whom is master of the rolls; the clerk of the crown, the clerk of the hamper, or hanaper, &c. and six attornies, commonly called the six clerks in chancery.

The lord chancellor, or keeper, is made by delivery of the king's great seal, and he may of course be dismissed by the king's calling for the seal back.

The jurisdiction and power of the court of equity are very great; causes of the first importance are determined here. It may give judgment for or against an infant, for or against a married woman; and executors may here sue each other. All frauds or deceits, for which there is no remedy at common law, may here be relieved. It will compel men to perform their agreements, reduce general customs to a certainty, relieve a copyholder against his lord, distinguish a man's land confounded with others, compel executors and others to give security for money, confirm a title to land, make conveyances good and perfect, enforce the enrolment of a deed, &c. But, where the plaintiff hath his remedy at common law, he ought not to be relieved here. This court will also restrain other courts that exceed their jurisdiction.

The method of proceeding in this court is, first, to file a bill, stating some fraud, force, or injury done, and praying relief; process then issues to compel the defendant to appear; and if he does not, further process issues to take his person, or seize his effects until he does appear.

The suit then proceeds; the defendant must put in his answer; the plaintiff may take exceptions, or must reply; witnesses are then examined, and the

the cause is brought to a hearing; after which the chancellor pronounces his decree, which is the judgment of the court, and against which no appeal will lie but to the house of peers.

The court of king's bench is the next court, called so, because the proceedings are supposed to be before the king. This court consists of a chief justice, called lord chief justice, created by writ, and three other judges, created by patent; all of whom hold their places so long as they shall behave themselves well. The place of sitting of the court may be removed at pleasure, and the judges are the sovereign justices of *oyer* and *terminer*, jail delivery and *eyre*, and conservators of the peace of England.

The subordinate officers of the court are; on the crown side, a clerk of the crown, with his secondary and clerks, to transact all business relating to criminal jurisdiction: on the plea side, a chief clerk or prothonotary, with his secondary, called also *master*, and clerks. The *master* receives matters referred to him by the court, which he examines and reports on, signs judgment, taxes costs, swears attornies, &c. The prothonotary has also a deputy, who keeps the remembrance of writs, and files the returned writs. The clerks of the treasury, of the papers, of the declarations, the signer of bills, clerks of the rules, filazers, clerks of errors, bail, and *posteas*, have all their separate departments; and the marshal has the custody of all the prisoners committed by the court.

The jurisdiction of this court extends over all England. The *crown* side takes cognizance of all treasons, felonies, and misdemeanors, tending to a breach of the peace; and all indictments in inferior courts may be removed by writ into this court.

On the plea side it takes cognizance of all pleas for debt, covenant, account, actions, &c. and may hold pleas by writ out of chancery. It can also examine all matters in *error*, in fact, or in law, in all courts except the exchequer; may grant a writ of *habeas corpus*, and grant prohibitions to courts temporal and ecclesiastical, to restrain them within their jurisdiction.

The court of *common pleas* stands next in rank, and consists likewise of a chief and three judges, who hold their places like those of the court of king's bench. The inferior officers are many, and the custody of all the prisoners is committed to the warden of the *Fleet* prison.

The jurisdiction of this court extends throughout all England, in all civil cases, real, personal, or mixt: in all *real* causes concerning inheritances, and all other real actions by original writs. In all personal and mixt actions, this court, and that of the king's bench, have concurrent jurisdiction. But this court has no cognizance of pleas of the crown. Common pleas are said to be all pleas that are not pleas of the crown.

The court of *exchequer*, so called from a checkered cloth which covers the table of the court, is the lowest of the four courts at Westminster, and is an ancient court of record, set up to order the rights of the crown, and for debts and duties due to the king in right of his crown. The court consists of two parts. The upper part determines judicially in all causes belonging to the king's treasury; the lower, in receiving and paying money.

The upper part is governed by the lord high treasurer, when there is one; but that office is at present in commission. The *chancellor of the exchequer*, or under-treasurer, governs under him, and hath the custody of the seal of this court.

The

The *lord chief baron* is the chief judge of this court, and has three other *barons* under him, who are the chief *auditors* of England, and can hear and determine all causes in law or equity. There is also a *cursitor* baron, who administers the oath to sheriffs, under-sheriffs, auditors, receivers, collectors, comptrollers, surveyors, and searchers of the customs.

There are two chamberlains of this court; and the king's attorney-general is made privy to all extraordinary matters brought before the court.

The subordinate officers of the upper exchequer are the two remembrancers, clerk of the pipe, comptroller of the pipe, auditors and clerks of various departments, and a marshal, who has the custody of the king's debtors. The officers of the receipt are the four tellers, clerks of the tallies and pells, two chamberlains, two ushers, &c.

The jurisdiction of the judicial part of the exchequer concerns all lands, rents, franchises, debts, &c. belonging to the king; and the officers of this court may sue and be sued here. This judicial part is a court both of law and equity. The court of common law is held before the barons only, and the plaintiff ought to be a tenant or debtor to the king, or someway accountant to him. The court of equity is holden before the lord treasurer (when there is one), the chancellor of the exchequer, and the barons; but the chancellor is never called on unless the barons are divided in their opinion. They proceed much the same as in chancery; but the plaintiff must set forth that he is a debtor to the king: and here the clergy exhibit bills against those who refuse to pay tithes; the attorney-general, for any matter relating to the king; and persons aggrieved in any suit on behalf of the king, may exhibit a bill against the attorney-general.

The

The king has also an *admiralty court*, for the trial of offences committed on the high seas. To this court belong the admiral of England, a judge, always a doctor of civil law, two registers, advocates, proctors, and a marshal. This is not a court of record, and proceeds by the rules of the civil law, and sometimes the maritime laws of Rhodes and Oleron. It has the jurisdiction to determine all maritime causes arising wholly on the sea, and out of the jurisdiction of any county, that is, beyond low-water mark. The jurisdiction of the court is pointed our by statute, and it cannot take any notice of wreck.

A special commission of admiralty is issued at stated times, in which some of the judges are joined with the judge of the admiralty, to try offences committed on the high seas.

Prizes taken from an enemy at sea in war time, are adjudged and condemned in the admiralty court.

The court of *assize* is a court, consisting of the judges of the courts of king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, who are empowered to try all causes in every county of England, except Middlesex. These divide themselves, and choose their circuits, two going on each. These judges are attended by the sheriffs of the respective counties, and have power, by virtue of five commissions, granted them, 1. to determine all causes of treason and felonies—this is called a commission of *oyer and terminer*; 2. to judge all persons then in jail by a commission of *jail delivery*; 3. all disputes on or about real property, by a commission of *assize*; 4. all causes about personal property, by a commission of *nisi prius*; and, 5. all offences against the peace, by a commission of the *peace*.

General or quarter sessions of the peace are courts of

of record, held every quarter of the year in every county by the justices of the peace, by virtue of their commission, for trial of offences against the peace. The custos rotulorum of the county, the clerk of the peace, sheriff, and coroners of the respective counties, attend this court in person, or by deputy.

The sheriff of every county has a court of record, for trial of certain offences, and a county court, where causes for personal property under forty shillings value are tried.

The *hundred* court, the *leet*, or view of frank-pledge, the *court baron*, the court of *ancient demesne*, *court* of *clerk* of the *market*, court of *pie powder*, and other inferior courts, are established for local or special purposes.

To carry on any suit for or against the king, he has his attorney-general, an office of great antiquity and profit; his solicitor-general, and about twenty of the most eminent barristers, are promoted to the rank of king's counsel, which gives them the privilege of wearing a silk gown, of sitting within the bar of the court in which they practise, and of being retained in any cause wherein the king has need of counsel learned in the law. Two or more of the sergeants at law are usually styled king's sergeants.

CHAP. XXI.—*Of the King as Head of the Army and Navy.*

In this capacity the king has the entire control of the army, which includes the militia and the navy. The establishment of both varies very considerably in time of war, but in time of peace is generally fixed.

The army of England, on the last peace establishment, consisted of two regiments of life-guards, whose

whose duty it is to guard the king; a regiment of horse-guards, blue; seven regiments of dragoon-guards, and nineteen regiments of dragoons; some of them heavy, and the others light horse. Of foot there were three regiments of foot-guards; a regiment of artillery, consisting of four battalions; a corps of engineers, and sixty-six regiments of foot; part of which were employed in England, part in Gibraltar and the plantations, and part in Ireland; for, although the grants for military service for the two countries were voted by their separate legislature, yet the same army serve for both countries; and all regiments, except the guards, take their turn of duty in Ireland. The peace establishment is not yet settled.

For the direction of this force there is an office called the war-office, the chief of which, called the secretary at war, issues all the common orders for marching, countermarching, &c. of the troops; but when a general officer embarks with troops upon any foreign service, he receives his instructions either from the secretary of state for the war department, or the commander in chief of the army.

The ranks in the English army are, 1. A commander in chief, usually an officer very high on the list of generals; 2. Field-marshals; 3. Generals; 4. Lieutenant-generals; 5. Major-generals; and, 6. A local rank of brigadier-general, which is conferred on some of the oldest colonels. No general receives any pay as such unless in actual service, or, as it is called, *upon the staff*; but they are supported by the commands of their respective regiments.

The regimental ranks are, 1. Colonel; 2. Lieutenant-colonel; 3. Major; 4. Captain; 5. Captain-lieutenant, an officer who has only the pay of lieutenant, but commands the colonel's company, and

and ranks as captain; 6. Lieutenants; and, 7. Ensigns: these are called commission officers. To each regiment are also attached an adjutant, a quarter-master, and surgeon. Sergeants and corporals are usually taken from the private men, and are called non-commission officers.

For the payment of this establishment there is a paymaster, deputy, and clerk; and each regiment has its particular agent.

As a provision for old and decayed soldiers, there are many companies of invalids, and the noble establishment of Chelsea hospital, in which a great number of superannuated soldiers are maintained, and a much greater number supported, or at least assisted, by pensions.

Attached to the army is a very considerable establishment, called the ordnance, which has the care of the artillery, ammunition, and fortifications, and which is divided into two branches, the civil and military.

The duty of the civil department, which is to provide artillery or ordnance, ammunition and stores for the army, and artillery and ammunition for the navy, is executed by a board, consisting of a master-general and lieutenant-general of the ordnance, a surveyor-general, clerk of the ordnance, clerk of the deliveries, and paymaster; which board has a secretary, and variety of clerks under them, with storekeepers, &c. at the different military and naval stations.

The military branch consists of the same master-general and lieutenant-general, and a corps of engineers, which, till lately, was composed of officers only; but now the various artificers annexed to the army are formed into a regiment under their command. The master-general of the ordnance is also commander of the royal regiment of artillery.

The navy, that glory and bulwark of the British nation, is a very considerable establishment; the number of ships of the line, frigates, sloops, &c. being near 500; and the number of seamen voted by parliament, during the war, to man them, including officers and marines, was 120,000. The establishment of seamen and marines last peace was, at the lowest, 18,000.

The whole of this immense force is under the direction of the lord high admiral of England, when there is one, but generally under seven commissioners for executing that office, commonly called lords of the admiralty.

These have two secretaries and a variety of clerks under them, and two secretaries and many clerks for the marine department. Their duty is to issue all orders for the government of the navy; give instructions to admirals or captains; appoint admirals, captains, lieutenants, and some other officers; and superintend the navy and victualling offices, and dock-yards; who are all bound to obey their instructions. The admiralty court is also subject, in some degree, to them; and they have a counsel and an advocate, for their advice in common or civil law, and a solicitor and king's proctor, to act for them in the court; also a judge advocate of the fleet, and deputies to preside at courts martial.

In the army the king signs all commissions himself; but in the navy three of the lords sign them, by virtue of orders from his majesty.

Subordinate to the admiralty are several boards, as the navy, victualling, sick and wounded, and transport boards, and the office of paymaster of the navy.

The navy board consists of several commissioners, as a comptroller and deputy comptroller, two surveyors, a clerk of the acts, a comptroller of treasurer's

surer's accounts, a comptroller of victualling accounts, a comptroller of storekeepers' accounts, and some extra commissioners resident at Sheerness, Chatham, Portsmouth, and Plymouth. A commissioner of the navy also resides at Hallifax in Nova Scotia. The board has a secretary.

This board has, in its collective capacity, power to make contracts for building or repairing ships, for purchasing stores, except provisions, can examine and appoint warrant officers, and has the superintendence of the dock-yards.

Each commissioner has also his separate department, agreeable to the title he bears, with clerks and officers under him to assist him therein.

The principal navy yards for building are Deptford, Woolwich, Sheerness, Chatham, Portsmouth, and Plymouth. The two first are under the direct control of the navy board, and the other have commissioners resident to direct them. There are besides inferior establishments of the navy at Deal, Harwich, Leith, Kinsale in Ireland, Gibraltar, Antigua, Jamaica, and Hallifax in Nova Scotia.

Each dock-yard has officers for the various duties, according to its size and importance; as a clerk of the check, a storekeeper, a master shipwright, a clerk of the survey, master attendants, master caulker, clerk of the rope-yard, master ropemaker, boatswain, purveyor, surgeon, and a great number of workmen under each.

The victualling board likewise consists of several commissioners; the first of whom, the chairman, superintends the cash accounts, the second the store accounts, the third the taking of hoys and transports, the fourth the brewhouse, the fifth the cutting house, the sixth the dry stores, and the seventh the cooperage.

The

The *victualling* board has, under control of the admiralty and navy board, the whole care of providing provisions of all kinds for the navy, which they principally do by contracts. The commissioners separately exercise the office which their title indicates, and each have clerks and officers under them for that purpose.

The *sick and wounded board* consists of three commissioners, who have the superintendence of the sick and wounded seamen and marines; and, by a late regulation, they have also the examination and appointment of surgeons for the navy, and their mates. Formerly this board had the direction of prisoners of war, but they have now only the care of such as are sick; and the others are under the care of a new establishment, called

The *transport office*, which is also a board, consisting of five commissioners, with secretary and clerks, who have the whole business of providing transports for the service of government, and for maintaining, regulating, and exchanging prisoners of war.

The treasurer of the navy is an officer of high trust, and the business of his office very complex: he has under him, a paymaster, and several deputies, with head and other clerks for various branches.

The sick seamen of the navy have hospitals provided for them at the principal ports; and the seamen who grow old, or are disabled in the service, are provided for in Greenwich hospital, as in-pensioners, where two thousand of those valuable members of society are supported in a decent and agreeable manner, and a much greater number are either supported or assisted by an annual allowance as out-pensioners. To supply the expenses of this hospital,

hospital, every seaman, whether in the king's or merchants' service, allows out of his pay sixpence per month, which is collected by the office called the receiver's office. Seamen in the king's service pay also a monthly stipend to what is called the chest at Chatham, which forms a fund for allowances to those of their brethren who are wounded.

Chap. XXII. — *Of the King as Head of the Revenue.*

The king of England's revenue may be divided into three branches: the first, the ancient revenue arising to the crown mostly from the feudal system and ancient demesnes; the greater part of which, as has been shewn, is annihilated. The second branch is the civil list revenue, which is an annual grant to the crown for life, of which the king has the uncontrolled expenditure. The third, and much the most important part, is the annual revenue granted by parliament for the public expenses.

The whole of the king's revenue is under the direction of the lords commissioners of the treasury, who have authority over all the boards and persons intrusted with the receipt, management, and expenditure of the said revenues; they sign warrants for the payments; and generally, superintend every branch of the revenue belonging to the king or the government.

The board of treasury usually consists of five commissioners, called lords of the treasury, the first of which is usually esteemed the *prime minister*, and the first or second is generally the chancellor of the exchequer. The board has attendant on it, two secretaries, six senior, a number of junior clerks, and one or two solicitors.

The

The necessity of a public revenue arises from the unavoidable charge attending the support of the army, navy, &c. and the interest of the national debt.

As this revenue, except that which respects the national debt, is voted annually by parliament; soon after that assembly meets, estimates are presented to the house of commons, made out at the proper offices, of the supposed charge for the ensuing year; which estimates are classed under the four heads of navy, army, ordnance, and miscellaneous.

The estimates of the navy consist of, 1. The allowance for the number of men for the year, including marines; for each of which it has been usual to allow the sum of 4*l*. per man per month, reckoning thirteen months to the year, or 52*l*. per annum for each man. But this is now increased.

2. The ordinary of the navy, or expenses of the ships not in commission, with the charge of officers' half-pay.

3. Expenses of building and repairs.

4. Extraordinaries of the navy, or such charges as do not come under the above heads.

The estimates of the army consist of,

1. Guards and garrisons.
2. Forces in the plantations.
3. General and staff officers.
4. Half-pay to reduced officers.
5. Allowance to officers' widows.
6. Expenses of Chelsea hospital.
7. Extraordinaries.

The estimates of the ordnance consist of,

1. Ordinary charge.
2. Extraordinaries, or such as cannot conveniently be estimated.

The miscellaneous services are all grants which do not come under the above heads.

These four heads, with the charges of the civil list, and the interest of the national debt, form the whole annual expenditure.

As the national debt requires so very large a sum to pay the annual interest, it is necessary to explain how it has accumulated. Before the revolution, a national debt was almost unknown; but the wars which have since been undertaken for the security of the protestant succession have been so expensive, that in less than a century the expenditure in time of war has so greatly exceeded the income of the nation, that a debt had accrued from the public to those who have supplied the various loans for the public service, to the amount of near two hundred and forty millions sterling before the late war, on which there is payable an annual interest of upwards of nine millions sterling.

As this national debt was a load, which, without some provision being made for it, must ultimately bring on disagreeable consequences, the late minister, a few years since, caused a bill to be brought into the house of commons, which afterwards passed into an act, appropriating the sum of one million a year for the purpose of paying off the said debt, and all the interest saved thereon, to go to a fund for the increase of the said million, so that the whole national expenditure was, during peace, settled as under:

Interest on the national debt	£.9,275,769
Interest on exchequer bills, which form part of the unfunded debt	258,000
Civil list — —	900,000
Navy — — —	1,800,000
Army, including militia —	1,691,000
Carried over	13,924,769

Brought over	£.13,924,769
Ordnance — —	348,000
Miscellaneous — —	205,412
To pay off the national debt	1,000,000
	15,478,181

On the inspection of the committee appointed for that purpose, it was found that the existing taxes produced only 15,379,000*l.*; therefore additional taxes were laid to make the income of the peace establishment exceed the requisite peace expenditure, by a few thousands per annum. The flourishing state of the commerce of the country a few years after, encouraged the parliament to assign an additional sum of 200,000*l.* for the liquidation of the national debt.

How this immense income is arranged, collected, and carrred to account, must next be considered.

The revenue, like the expenditure, is classed under four heads; customs, excise, stamps, and incidents.

Customs are certain duties paid mostly on importation, and a small sum on exportation of various merchandise; which revenue is under the direction of nine commissioners, and a variety of subordinate officers.

Excise is an inland duty paid on certain enumerated articles, and is also under the direction of nine commissioners.

Stamps are duties paid on certain deeds or instruments, newspapers, almanacks, &c. collected under the direction of a board of five commissioners.

Incidents are all other duties which do not come under the above heads, and which are collected in a great variety of ways.

These

These four are called *permanent* taxes.

There are also two taxes which are called annual taxes, from their being voted annually by parliament: these are the *land* tax, which has for several years been fixed at four shillings in the pound on an old estimate of the value of land, which is under the direction of a board appointed for that purpose, and amounts to 2,000,000*l.* per annum; and the *malt* tax, which is estimated at 750,000*l.* per annum. The amounts of taxes, therefore, to answer the above expenditure were nearly as follows:

Customs, about —	£.4,500,000
Excise — —	5,500,000
Stamps — —	1,200,000
Incidents — —	1,800,000
Land and malt, deducting charges	2,000,000
	15,000,000

Such was the flattering state of the revenue of this country previous to the war: the expenses of which, or rather the interest paid on the money borrowed for that purpose, must be added.

The following is the nearest estimate of the receipts and expenditure we can now give.

The minister, in addition to the above estimate of expenditure	£.15,478,181
Supposes the present peace establishment will exceed the former about — — —	700,000
The additional interest on the money borrowed for the war, the additional sum of 200,000*l.* for the reduction of the national debt, &c.	14,548,591
Total expenditure	30,726,772
Receipts before the war —	15,600,000
Receipts of taxes laid on for the war	16,608,853
Total of receipts	32,208,853

A few years will determine how far these estimates can be realized.

CHAP. XXIII.—*Of the King as Arbiter of Commerce, and Regulator of Coin.*

There is one more point of view in which we must speak of the king's executive government—as arbiter or director of the commerce of his subjects. The powers he is invested with by law on this head have been already shewn; it now remains to see how he executes them.

A number of the privy council, with a president and vice-president at their head, are called the board of trade and plantations, and attend to those concerns; they have under them certain clerks and officers.

To protect the privileges of the nation and its commerce in foreign parts, the king appoints a number of consuls to reside at the chief ports of trade in Europe and America, who are supported either by salaries paid out of the civil list, or by fees paid by the parties who are benefited by the establishment. These consuls and their deputies take cognizance of whatever regards the commerce of the nation in their respective districts, and, when there is no ambassador, may remonstrate to the government of the place for redress.

The king can grant to any body of men the privilege of trading in company, by virtue of his charter; but no exclusive privilege can be granted but by act of parliament. All the present existing commercial companies act under royal charter, mostly confirmed by parliament.

The first public company in point of importance is that of the bank of England, instituted at first only to carry on the business of banking, but which now, by subsequent agreements with government, has the payment of interest, and management of almost the whole funded property of the nation.—

The

The establishment of this bank is a matter of great importance. The scheme of a national bank, which had been adopted in Amsterdam and Genoa, was, during the reign of king William, recommended as an excellent institution, as well for the credit and security of government as for the increase of trade and circulation. This scheme was founded on the notion of a transferable fund, and a circulation by bills on the credit of a large capital. The new company lent to government one million for their charter, which has at various times been increased to near twelve millions, the present capital of the bank; and as a proof of the increase of wealth in this country within the last century, the interest paid by government, which on the first establishment of this company was eight per cent. was before the war reduced to three per cent. On a late investigation, it appeared that the circulation of this opulent company, on their notes, was about twelve millions sterling, but it is much increased since.

The East India company was established by charter, by queen Elizabeth, and has been continued by subsequent acts and charters to this time. This company has the exclusive trade to all countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope.—The establishment of the India company and their exclusive charter, were given and continued in consequence of sums of money lent to the government; and it is a settled point in the contract between the government and both companies, that they are to enjoy the exclusive trade granted by their charter, until the whole of their capitals lent to the state are repaid. The East India company, exclusive of their profits from their commerce, have also gained very extensive dominions in Asia, yielding a gross revenue of six or seven millions sterling, and

which, after the expenses of the civil and military governments are paid, it is said affords them a clear income of upward of one million sterling.

The South Sea company was once a commercial body, but the trade to the South Sea being lost, their whole business is the management of that part of the national debt which is due to the proprietors.—The portion of the national debt due from government to this company is near twenty millions sterling.

These, with the small company who have the trade to Hudson's Bay, are the only companies which possess exclusive charters.

The business of the merchants to Russia, Turkey, and Africa, is all in some respects under the direction of companies, but of these any person may become free on paying a trifling sum for admission; and the whole power of the company extends to making useful regulations only, except that the African company have the appointment of all the governors and servants on the coast; and the Turkey company have, by their charter, the nomination of consuls.

There are some other institutions for the benefit of commerce, established by royal authority; as the merchants' seamen's office, for the relief of seamen in the merchants' service; the Trinity-house, for regulating the lights on the coasts; and the post-office, for the conveyance of letters: the latter of which is a considerable source of revenue, accounted for under the head of *incidents*. Of the several offices established for insurances from fire, two of them, the Royal Exchange and London, exist by royal charter.

The whole business of the coinage is under the direction of the mint.

The coins of this kingdom are, guineas, half guineas,

guineas, and seven-shilling pieces, in gold; crowns, half crowns, shillings, and sixpences, in silver; two-penny pieces, pence, halfpence, and farthings, in copper; the weight of the guinea should be five dwt. nine grains, the half guinea and seven-shilling piece in proportion.

To afford a general idea of the immense commerce of this country, we shall only observe, that the value of the goods exported from this country for some years past has been increasing, and has lately amounted to near thirty millions sterling annually. *See Appendix.*

CONCLUSION.

Thus has been given, as far as the confined limits of the work will admit, a view of the constitution, laws, and government of England; the two last of which have, perhaps, been developed, as fully as is necessary for the young readers, for whom this work is designed. For such as wish to pursue their inquiries farther, the following works are recommended: for the constitution, Dr. Millar's excellent History of the Government and Constitution of England, and Delolme's Essay on the same; for the feudal law, Dalrymple's Essay on that subject; for the law of England, Judge Blackstone's approved Commentaries; or for such as do not choose to attempt a field so very extensive, Mr. Curry's Abridgment. The mode of conducting the executive government can be best learned by consulting the various reports that have been made within these late years by the boards established for the purpose of inquiry into that subject.

 It

It is not the intention of this work to pronounce censure or unbounded panegyric on the constitution of England: it has intrinsic merit, and possibly may not be without faults. If the reader wishes to take the opinion of a judicious author on that subject, he cannot do better than consult Mr. Wendeborn's View of England, whose remarks are judicious and candid.

The laws of England have also their censurers and panegyrists: with the first, we must be compelled to confess that it is to be wished the road of obtaining justice was shorter and less expensive; but even those persons must admit that no system of laws hitherto known has so well provided for the personal liberty of the subject, a circumstance which alone ought to make persons who enjoy it content with their lot.

APPENDIX.

Population of the Kingdom of GREAT BRITAIN.

BY a return made to parliament of the population of Great Britain, it appears that there are in

	Persons.
England — —	8,3[illegible]1,434
Wales — — —	541,546
Scotland — —	1,599,068
The army, including militia	198,351
Navy, including marines —	126,279
Seamen in registered shipping	144,558
Convicts on board the hulks	1,410
	10,942,646

Account of Ships and Vessels entered in and cleared out of the Ports of GREAT BRITAIN, *from* 1789 *to* 1800.

VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS.

Years.	*British Tons.*	*Foreign Tons.*	*Total Tons.*
1789	1,898,333	190,676	1,989,009
1790	1,428,376	277,599	1,705,975
1791	1,452,498	321,364	1,773,862
1792	1,587,645	304,074	1,891,719
1793	1,342,952	332,375	1,675,327
1794	1,452,786	334,205	1,786,991
1795	1,242,785	390,030	1,632,815
1796	1,474,949	520,069	1,995,018
1797	1,150,222	455,678	1,605,000
1798	1,289,144	420,028	1,709,172
1799	1,375,169	476,596	1,851,765
1800	1,379,807	763,236	2,143,043

VESSELS

VESSELS CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Years.	*British Tons.*	*Foreign Tons.*	*Total Tons.*
1789	1,507,636	103,697	1,611,333
1790	1,399,233	148,974	1,548,207
1791	1,5[illegible]1,294	184,729	1,696,023
1792	1,563,744	75,556	1,639,300
1793	1,240,202	187,032	1,427,234
1794	1,382,250	218,567	1,600,817
1795	1,145,450	332,567	1,528,017
1796	1,254,626	478,358	1,732,984
1797	1,103,781	396,271	1,500,052
1798	1,319,151	365,719	1,684,870
1799	1,302,551	414,774	1,717,325
1800	1,445,271	685,051	2,130,322

Value of Imports and Exports from 1785 *to* 1800.

VALUE OF IMPORTS.

Years.	*From East Indies & China.*	*All other Parts.*	*Total Imports.*
1785	£2,703,940	£13,575,478	£16,279,419
1786	3,156,687	12,629,385	15,786,072
1787	3,430,868	14,373,146	17,804,014
1788	3,453,897	14,573,272	18,027,170
1789	3,362,545	14,458,557	17,821,102
1790	3,140,870	15,981,015	19,130,886
1791	3,698,713	15,971,069	19,669,782
1792	2,701,547	16,957,810	19,659,358
1793	3,499,023	15,757,693	19,256,717
1794	4,458,475	17,830,418	22,288,894
1795	5,760,810	16,976,079	22,736,889
1796	3,372,689	19,814,630	23,187,319
1797	3,942,384	17,071,572	21,013,956
1798	7,626,930	20,230,959	27,857,889
1799	4,284,805	22,552,626	26,837,432
1800	4,942,275	25,628,330	30,570,605

VALUE

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

Year.	British Produce & Manufactures.	Foreign Merchandise.	Total Exports.
1785	£11,081,810	£5,035,357	£16,117,168
1786	11,830,372	4,475,493	16,305,866
1787	12,053,900	4,815,889	16,869,789
1788	12,724,719	4,747,518	17,472,238
1789	13,779,506	5,561,042	19,340,548
1790	14,921,084	5,199,037	20,120,121
1791	16,810,018	5,921,976	22,731,995
1792	18,336,851	6,568,328	24,905,200
1793	13,892,268	6,497,911	20,390,180
1794	16,725,402	10,022,680	26,748,083
1795	16,338,213	10,785,125	27,123,338
1796	19,102,220	11,416,693	30,518,913
1797	16,903,103	12,013,907	28,917,010
1798	19,672,503	13,919,274	33,591,777
1799	24,084,213	11,907,116	35,991,329
1800	24,304,283	18,847,735	43,152,019

An Account of the Number of Vessels belonging to the several Ports of the British Empire, and the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of their Men and Boys employed in navigating them, in the Year 1783, and the seventeen following Years.

	Years.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
On 5 Jan.	1783	8,342	669,212	59,004
	1784	9,111	793,147	65,880
	1785	9,753	859,606	71,372
	1786	10,192	920,926	74,835

On

	Years.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
	1787	10,411	1,087,874	81,745
	1788	13,827	1,363,488	107,925
	1789	14,310	1,395,172	108,962
	1790	15,015	1,460,823	112,556
	1791	15,645	1,511,411	117,044
	1792	16,079	1,540,145	118,286
On the 30th September	1793	16,329	1,564,520	118,952
	1794	16,806	1,589,758	119,629
	1795	16,728	1,574,451	116,467
	1796	17,067	1,519,298	120,979
	1797	16,903	1,614,996	124,394
	1798	17,295	1,666,481	129,546
	1799	17,879	1,752,815	135,237
	1800	18,877	1,905,438	143,661

In the above account, the first five years only comprehend the shipping belonging to England and Holland. The accounts of the vessels belonging to Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, Man, and the British colonies in the West Indies and America, were not returned to the Register General of Shipping previously to the year 1788.

THE END.

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